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TEACHERS OF ENGLISH RE-EXAMINE THEIR CURRICULUM

THE APPEARANCE this spring of *The English Language Arts*, first volume of a five-volume series on the English curriculum, marks another milestone in the history of English instruction in this country and in the history of the National Council of Teachers of English. The influence which this and the forthcoming volumes are likely to have on the teaching of the language arts in the elementary school and on the teaching of English in high school and college, as well as the scope and nature of the study itself, merit comment in these columns. Some perspective may be gained, too, from a brief review of two earlier curriculum studies in the field of English.

From time to time the teachers of English in this country have undertaken a re-examination of their curriculum. The results of the first such nation-wide study were published in

1917 under the title *Reorganization of English in Secondary Schools* (United States Bureau of Education Bulletin 1917, No. 2). This report was indeed a document of considerable historical importance in the development of the English curriculum in American schools.

Early in this century the public high school was still struggling to establish itself as a continuation of common-school education. There was unrest about the college-preparatory nature of the curriculum and about the domination which the colleges held over the emerging secondary school. By the end of the first decade of this century, the high school had gained some emancipation from its earlier role as a preparatory school. Agitation for reform in the English curriculum gained momentum and by 1910 had taken on the proportions of a national movement. Subsequently a number of national committees were appointed to

study the problem, the chief of these committees being the National Joint Committee on English Representing the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association and the National Council of Teachers of English. It was this committee, under the chairmanship of James Fleming Hosis, which produced the bulletin to which reference was made earlier.

The conditions out of which the agitation for reform arose and which gave impetus to the study are set forth in the following excerpt from the Preface of the 1917 bulletin:

It should be recognized that the agitation leading to the appointment of the committee was not personal or sporadic but impersonal and persistent. It sprang from a set of conditions that had grown up in the course of time with the evolution of American society and American education, and was confined to no one section, though more violent in some regions than in others because of greater conservatism and weight of conditions. In short, the efforts to bring about reform, though they may have seemed needlessly violent at times, were due to real dissatisfaction with the existing state and a genuine and quite inevitable desire to adjust the forces of the school to the changed conditions of society surrounding it.

The new view of the school course and of the aims and ideals of the teacher is merely one of the corollaries of our democratic theory, and hence is bound to work itself out to some decisive conclusion. The high school is rapidly becoming a common school. That is what it was first planned to be, and that is what the people seem now determined to make it. From that point of view the folly of insisting that the high-school course in English shall be a college-preparatory course is evident. Nor will it answer to bring

forward the shopworn plea that what best prepares for college best prepares for life. There is too much skepticism as to the value of much of present-day college work to warrant this. As a matter of fact, the college itself is passing through a period of adjustment. But more fundamental still is the fact that college-preparatory work in English never has prepared for college. College men freely confess that they make no attempt to base their courses upon what the high schools are supposed to have done, and, more significant still, boys and girls brought up in high schools free from the domination of the college-entrance ideal very frequently surpass their classmates who were carefully pointed toward the college examination. The entire doctrine of "preparation" for higher institutions is fallacious. The best preparation for anything is real effort and experience in the present.

In the two decades following the 1917 report, important changes in the social scene and in the character of the school population took place. Attendance at the elementary-school level became almost universal, and the high-school population virtually doubled every decade. Furthermore, the progress made in educational thinking affected the goals of education and the procedures for directing learning. Sensitive to these changes and responsive to the demands of many teachers for help, the National Council of Teachers of English undertook a second re-examination of the curriculum. In 1929 the Council created a Curriculum Commission of more than one hundred persons charged with the responsibility of making a study of the English curriculum from kindergarten through college.

The results of this extensive study resulted in the publication of two important monographs. The first to appear, in 1934, was *The Teaching of College English*. The second, entitled *An Experience Curriculum in English*, was published in 1935. It presents a pattern curriculum from kindergarten through the twelfth grade. Both were publications of the National Council of Teachers of English and were published by D. Appleton-Century Company.

In 1945 the National Council of Teachers of English felt it was time once again to undertake a full-scale re-study of the English curriculum—this time a study embracing all levels from preschool through the graduate school. To direct this nation-wide effort, the Council appointed a Commission on the English Curriculum composed of twenty-five members (later increased to thirty-one). Earnest efforts were made to have the Commission truly representative of all educational levels, of all sections of the country, and of the several schools of thought in the field. Among the personnel of the Commission were elementary- and high-school teachers, college professors, librarians, school administrators, supervisors, deans, and a college president.

To head the Commission and to direct the study, the Council chose Dora V. Smith, professor of education, University of Minnesota. Serving with her as associate directors are Angela M. Broening, assistant director of research, Baltimore public schools;

Helen K. Mackintosh, associate chief, Elementary Section, Division of State and Local School Systems, U.S. Office of Education; and Porter G. Perrin, professor of English, University of Washington.

The Commission recognized from the outset that one of the major problems in designing a sound curriculum is the provision of sequential learning experiences from childhood to adulthood in terms of human growth and development and in terms of the demands of modern life. Accordingly, the Commission appointed four "vertical" committees in the areas of reading and literature, language and writing, speech, and listening. On each of these vertical committees were representatives from preschool, primary and intermediate grades; junior and senior high schools; junior and senior colleges; and graduate schools.

The Commission also recognized the importance of the interrelationships among the language arts of reading, writing, speaking, and listening at any given level. Hence, it also appointed "horizontal" committees for each level of the school system to work especially at the problem of integrating the several language arts in the learning experiences of the students. These committees, both vertical and horizontal, comprised a total membership of nearly 150. Working with the Commission, they served as specialists in particular fields and levels, secured "grass-roots" points of view out in the field, collected illustrations of promising practices from all parts of the

country, and helped to prepare portions of the manuscripts for the series.

Now, after several years of intensive work by many persons, the first volume in this comprehensive curriculum series has appeared. This volume, *The English Language Arts*, attempts "(1) to give an overview of the curriculum in English Language Arts from the preschool through the graduate school, (2) to bring the best thinking in the field to bear upon major issues faced by curriculum committees throughout the country, and (3) to describe as illustrative for local committees a method of approach to curriculum making found useful in this study." The point of view of this first volume is reflected in the following paragraph from the first page of the Preface:

Many factors have contributed to the need for re-examination of the program in English at all levels of instruction. One is the changing concept of learning brought about by the study of human development. Language power is recognized today as a part of all growth. Words acquire meaning in relation to broadening experience. Social as well as linguistic factors inhere in improved methods of communicating. Sequence in learning depends upon continuity of growth in the learner. Developing a program in the language arts today may be likened less to building a wall by carefully laying brick upon brick than to nurturing growth in a tree by enriching the soil, furnishing the proper environment, and judiciously pruning as certain branches get out of control. The problem is not so much one of looking at English and determining the order of topics to be studied as it is of looking at the learner and the society of which he is a part and aiding his growth both in and through

the elements of reading, listening, and expression necessary to effective living today.

The remaining four volumes, in varying stages of preparation, will bear these titles: *The Language Arts in the Elementary School*, *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School*, *The College Teaching of English*, and *The Preparation of Teachers of the English Language Arts*. The entire series is being published by Appleton-Century-Crofts, New York 1, New York. Copies of Volume I may be ordered either from the publishers or from the National Council of Teachers of English, 211 West Sixty-eighth Street, Chicago 21, Illinois.

JOHN DEWEY

THE DEATH of John Dewey early this summer, even though at the advanced age of ninety-two, was still somewhat of a shock to the entire educational world. His many friends and followers in the far corners of the world feel a deep sense of loss in his passing. For all of us associated with the University of Chicago, and particularly with the Department of Education, the loss seems more personal, for John Dewey was a member of the faculty of the University from 1894 to 1904 and during his last years at Chicago was closely identified with this Department.

Many tributes, appreciations, and estimates of his contributions have already appeared in the press. We have selected one for reproduction here. It was prepared by a member of the Department of Education, Professor

Joseph J. Schwab, for the campus newspaper, the *Chicago Maroon*, where it appeared on June 6, 1952.

Now that John Dewey is dead he may at last come into his own. For Dewey, to come into his own is to be understood, and being understood, to be tested. This he was denied in life. He was vulgarized by his followers, the "progressive" educators. He was vilified by doctrinaire rabble-rousers who had not read him. He was used as a stalking horse by self-righteous possessors of ultimate truth. He was patronized by technicalist logicians whose principles he helped create.

It is not enough to say of Dewey that greatness, in virtue of its greatness, must inevitably be misunderstood. For in Dewey's philosophy *being understood* is not a mere reward to the man-as-philosopher for performing his work well. It is rather a necessary and intrinsic property of a capable philosophic scheme. Somewhere then, in the intricacies of his thought, Dewey must have erred.

Dewey's examination of the world and of man convinced him that no limits need be set upon the freedom accessible to man. He saw the material universe as stubborn only, not as an eternal rock: man could order it to fit his needs. He saw human intercourse as confused only, not as a predestined wrangle and conflict: human persons could become participants in community and in so doing enlarge indefinitely each his own capacity for individual being and for respecting and loving others. He saw thought and feeling and action as only unharnessed, not as opposed and conflicting demands upon human creative energies: man could learn to fuse them in a unity in which each did its work and in so doing enlarged rather than reduced the energies and means accessible to the others. Seeing these possible freedoms, he dared men to extend their reach and make them real.

In his sense of the interdependency of

men, of times, of events, of thoughts, of needs and strivings, there was no place for the utterly self-created, the entirely "original." There was similarly no possibility of the final, the definitive solution to a problem. Hence, for Dewey, there was no one true science, no one true philosophy. Each was a solution to that much of the problem as could be seen. A principal role of each solution was to disclose a large facet of the problem, prepare the way for another and more embracing solution—hence also for its own demise.

We can now find Dewey's error. It is not in the freedoms he saw as possible. It is not in his estimate of men's potentialities. It is not in his tactic of challenge. It is rather in his sense of the sweep of time. Just as he saw each philosophic work preceding his to be the solution of only so much of human problems as its age disclosed, so also he saw his own. His too was to be an expression only for his time, of the problems of that time, and therefore entirely intelligible only to his time. In such a foreshortened perspective, for Dewey to be misunderstood in his lifetime was failure.

But the continuity of history is not a track narrowing to nothingness either forward or backward. It is the ball which gathers itself up as it goes: the past is assimilated to the present, the present moves in to modulate tomorrow. Time and its works persist. Ideas do not lose their vitality at the moment of their birth. What Plato and Aristotle thought in Greece perhaps had a special and fuller meaning for Greece than for us. But meaning in fulness and plenty they retain for us. So with Augustine in his later day, and Kant in his. Dewey knew this. Better than his detractors he knew the debt he owed his fathers. He erred only in forgetting it in reference to himself. For he belongs in this company. He is not only the greatest of American philosophers in our time. He is not only one of the two or three great ones in all the world in our time. He belongs also to the immortal company. There is plenty of time, of life and vitality,

in which to come to understand him, and to test him, as he wished.

EDUCATION BY TELEVISION

THE MANY MILLIONS of people (some estimates were placed as high as sixty to seventy million) who "attended" the national conventions of the two major political parties in Chicago last July by means of television became suddenly aware of the tremendous educational potentialities of this relatively new medium of mass communication. They will now consider with more than indifferent interest the announcement that the Federal Communications Commission has reserved 242 TV channels for non-commercial, educational use. More than 100,000,000 people are within viewing range of the TV stations which can be established to use these channels.

More than eight hundred colleges, universities, school systems, state departments of education, and public service agencies, expressing their views through the Joint Committee on Educational Television, formed a persuasive "lobby" which convinced the FCC that television can and will be used by educational institutions in the public interest. Having obtained these outlets for reaching millions of people through television, the educational agencies are now obligated to take up the option which is theirs. Educational institutions must now meet, in concrete terms, the challenge of using this new medium so wisely as to justify the allocation of educational channels. These channels must be used prompt-

ly, for the FCC action provides a "firm" reservation of channels for education for only one year. After that, commercial interests may begin to apply for the educational channels.

It is gratifying to note that educational institutions and agencies are exercising their options. The FCC began processing applications on July 1. By the end of the first week it had already received applications for nine noncommercial, educational television stations in California, Florida, Kansas, New York, and Texas.

In California the Bay Area Television Association, a nonprofit corporation organized under the laws of California, requested VHF channel 9 on behalf of all educational institutions in the San Francisco-Oakland area. The facilities of the station will be open to elementary schools, high schools, colleges, and other organizations whose primary purpose is to educate. Policy will be determined by those who share in the financial obligations of the association. It is estimated that operational expenses will run to more than \$100,000 a year exclusive of outlay for capital equipment.

The Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York also was among the early applicants. The Board of Regents filed applications for reserved UHF channels in Albany, Buffalo, Rochester, Syracuse, and New York City. It is reported that applications have been made, or are in preparation, for channels in Binghamton, Ithaca, Malone, Poughkeepsie, and Utica.

The University of the State of New

York, "the constitutionally designated agency for the development of new means of expanding the educational facilities of the state," plans to use the ten stations, the total number reserved in New York State for education by the FCC, for a state-wide network. The system will utilize programs originating from each of the educational stations, and, in addition, each station will present some programs for local viewing. The estimated construction cost for each station is \$251,000.

In Florida the Lindsay Hopkins Vocation School of the Dade County Board of Public Instruction, Miami, requested authority to build a television station on reserved VHF channel 2. The program schedule of the educational station in Miami will include organized educational programs for classroom use, adult-education programs, programs of information and public events, and programs on the arts and sciences.

Two institutions of higher education in Kansas, namely, the Kansas State College of Agriculture and Applied Science and the University of Kansas, have been negotiating for several months for joint operation of television programs. Kansas State has already filed an application to build a station on reserved VHF channel 8 in Manhattan, and similar plans are under way for the building of a station on channel 11 at Lawrence by the University of Kansas. This joint enterprise is designed to provide programs in adult education for the citizens of

Kansas. It is expected that the legislature will make the necessary funds available at its next session. Kansas State College estimates construction costs at \$362,624 and programming costs at \$332,800.

The University of Houston and the Houston (Texas) Independent School District have filed a joint application to construct a station on VHF channel 8. This station will begin operations with a program schedule of four hours a day, to be expanded to eight hours a day as soon as feasible. The schedule will include programs for public school viewing, informative programs for young people, instructional programs at the college level, and general cultural programs. The total construction cost of the station is estimated at \$600,000, with operating expenses for the first year estimated at \$150,000. Funds are on hand to begin construction as soon as the permit is granted by the FCC.

This spring Ohio State University was authorized by its Board of Trustees to proceed with steps necessary for the establishment of a television station for educational use. The University anticipates providing a community television service, including information for farmers, housewives, and parents; refresher courses for professional and technical groups; supplementary classroom instruction programs for elementary and secondary schools; appreciation of the arts; and programs to develop understanding of public affairs.

The Board of Trustees of the Uni-

versity of Illinois has authorized its corporate officers to file an application with the FCC for authority to construct a television station and for a license to operate it on channel 12, which was assigned to the Champaign-Urbana area for educational use. Somewhat similar steps have been taken by the University of Wisconsin.

It should be clear from the foregoing illustrations that educational television has already been launched on an impressive scale. Presumably, many other educational institutions and agencies have also made their plans. Those described here were known to the writer when these notes were being prepared in midsummer. Teachers and other educational workers will watch with interest and anticipation this new and revolutionary extension of the classroom.

Fortunately, educational television has at its disposal the services of an informed and competent committee, the Joint Committee on Educational Television. The committee is made up of appointed representatives from seven educational organizations: the American Council on Education, the Association for Education by Radio and Television, the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, the National Association of Educational Broadcasters, the National Association of State Universities, the National Council of Chief State School Officers, and the National Education Association.

To assist the Joint Committee with its work, the Fund for Adult Educa-

tion, established by the Ford Foundation, has again made a substantial grant. The grant for this year is \$145,000.

NEW PLAN FOR TRAINING SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

HARVARD Graduate School of Education has recently announced a new program for the training of school administrators. Beginning in September, 1952, the new program will stress field work in school systems and practice in making decisions and solving problems in actual administrative situations. The new program employs the "case method" long in use in law schools and schools of medicine. Emphasis will be placed upon "the administrator in action," the person called upon to make practical decisions in the areas of school policy, budget requirements, curriculum changes, parent-teacher relationships, and public relations in the community. An important ingredient in the curriculum will be group discussion of actual problems brought in from the field.

In announcing the new program, the School of Education furnished the following description:

The new program is clinical in outlook and conception rather than being largely research-oriented according to traditional patterns, and it leans heavily on contemporary social sciences.

The aim of the new program is to develop the master-practitioner in the field of educational administration. He is thoroughly informed in educational theory, but he is also the man who makes decisions and solves

problems in actual administrative situations. The administrator is not simply a technical executor but also a judge of values and often a determiner of policy.

The new course consists of a series of experiences in the world of educational administration. It begins with group discussion of problems and practices and methods of administration. It goes on to an extended group of "cases": detailed reports of actual administrative situations in which the student is asked to analyze and decide from the point of view of the responsible administrator in those cases. Field work is also involved: with a survey team from the Center for Field Studies . . . or as a member of a social-science research team, several of which are now at work. Finally, each member of the program will be responsible for an individual administrative project of inclusive scope.

Emphasis will be placed on concepts, with readings in psychology, anthropology, sociology, the humanities, and related subjects. Resources of the University beyond the Graduate School of Education will be tapped: professors from faculties of business, public health, public administration, and others will be asked to participate.

The capstone of the new program is not a doctoral dissertation, nor does completion of a specified number of approved courses constitute fulfillment of degree requirements. Instead, the new program emphasizes a core of responsible field experiences for the individual student. . . . He does not simply talk about problems of administration: he also works with them. And he will be evaluated chiefly as an administrator in action.

The program is based on two years of residence beyond the Harvard Master of Education degree or its equivalent. Some students will be able to complete the requirements in one academic year of residence plus summer and/or part-time study. Elements of the core program must be followed in sequence, however, since each builds on what has gone before.

ORIENTING THE NEW TEACHER THIS FALL

WHEN SCHOOL OPENS this fall, a tidal wave of new pupils will be entering school for the first time. There have always been new pupils every fall. But this year, as in recent years, the numbers will be unusually large. The big bulge in the birth rate during the war years and immediately following is swelling the school population almost beyond capacity to house the children.

And new teachers, many of them, are entering school buildings for the first time as teachers this fall. The number is almost overwhelming. These new teachers, as always, face the problem of orientation to a new task. Unless their adjustment to new tasks and responsibilities is facilitated, pupils and teachers alike will suffer.

Heavy burdens fall on the new teacher in a new community. He usually is expected to teach a full schedule of classes, with new preparations for all of them. There are no lesson plans, teaching exercises, tests, and projects to fall back on in a pinch. Everything must be done from the beginning. There are fugitive instructional materials to gather, materials to collect for the bulletin board, collateral readings to discover, and classroom libraries to assemble. There is much to learn about the rules and regulations of the school, its traditions and its sanctions. All the faces in the student body are new, as are those of the faculty. There are names by the hundreds! If the teacher is lucky, he

has already found a place to live, but the community is still strange to him; there are many new places in the community to locate: desirable places to shop and eat, a garage that can be depended upon when the car needs repair, a church in which one can feel at home, a doctor in case of sudden need. Yes, even at best, the new teacher finds the first few weeks of school strenuous ones.

Until recent years the new teacher was left too largely to solve his own problems. He had to make his own way into the school and the community. Wise and understanding school administrators today, of course, are accepting increasing responsibility. Unfortunately, not all of them are wise and understanding. Indeed, one teacher is reported to have said that the principal held a meeting with the new teachers, "gave a short talk on educational philosophy, explained the method of checking attendance, and left the rest up to the janitor!"

Herbert A. Clawson, acting principal of the Mattoon (Illinois) High School, has reported a study of practices in orienting the new teacher in Illinois schools. Mr. Clawson directed a questionnaire to principals and superintendents in representative schools throughout the state, asking them to indicate what they were doing "to help new teachers find suitable housing, to become acquainted with the community, to learn the practices and procedures of the school system, and to become full-fledged staff members." Questionnaires were also sent to teach-

ers who were asked to report "what help they had been given in finding suitable housing, in becoming acquainted with the people of the community, and in becoming familiar with the routine of the school system and its philosophy and objectives." They were also asked "to name the problems they had experienced in becoming oriented, and to suggest ways in which they could have been helped to solve them."

As a result of his study, Mr. Clawson drew these conclusions and offers these suggestions. The full report may be found in the May, 1952, issue of *Illinois Education*.

The study revealed that very few administrators give—or even consider it necessary to give—the new teacher help in planning the work for the year. Yet more than half of the new teachers reported that they would have welcomed such help, and felt it would have aided them in making adjustments to the new positions.

When asked to name the items they felt would have helped them to become oriented, new teachers mentioned most frequently a handbook, manual, or outline of the rules and regulations of the school; staff meetings devoted to the study of school problems; conferences with the superintendent or principal; opportunity to visit the classes of experienced teachers; help in planning work; help in the use of the grading system; more co-operation between the administrators and teachers; and a study of the philosophy of the school.

Could more be done to help new teachers become oriented? The exact nature of the program will depend upon many local factors and conditions, but the following suggestions should apply to most communities:

1. As soon as possible after appointment, send the new teacher an inventory on which

he may indicate his needs in securing a place to live, the type of living quarters desired, the amount he expects to pay, and the privileges desired. This information should be sent to the local housing committee.

Friendly letters of welcome containing information about the community should be sent to new teachers by various local groups and organizations. Usually the association of commerce has booklets containing vital information about the city. Churches should also be given an opportunity to assist in making the newcomers feel welcome.

In addition to helping the new teachers meet the people of the community, the various aspects of the community should be pointed out to them, such as the major industries and occupations, the cultural and intellectual opportunities, the church life, recreational facilities, historical background, and any other information which will aid them in gaining an understanding of the pupils they will teach.

2. Give the new teacher all available information about the position at the time of appointment, such as the size and location of the building, his subject or grade assignment, the nature of the pupils, and the general type of community. Any extra- or co-curricular assignments should be discussed and agreed upon at this time.

3. Provide a handbook, or manual, containing factual information about the school's rules, regulations, policies, and other pertinent information.

4. Hold a preschool conference or planning period, a portion of which is devoted to the problems of new teachers. In many cases, this period may be well spent in making plans for the coming year and in providing sufficient time for co-operative conferences with co-workers and supervisors.

5. The teachers should have an informal social meeting early in the year. A picnic on the last day of the planning period will usually be very valuable in bringing staff members together in a spirit of good fellowship. "Time out for play" is a good rule to

follow throughout the school year by having parties, dances, teas, and dinners at intervals.

6. Assign an experienced teacher to help each newcomer with the many questions which are bound to arise during the year. This sponsor should be teaching in the same or a closely related field and should be located in a room close to that of the new teacher.

7. Hold weekly meetings of the new teachers during the first month or two of school in order to provide them with an opportunity to discuss common problems.

8. Provide adequate supervision for those who are teaching in the system for the first time, especially during the first few months of school.

9. Make provisions for new teachers to visit classes of the experienced teachers of the system. Perhaps a reciprocal agreement among the teachers would be most beneficial, since it is also probable that the experienced teachers may pick up new methods and techniques from the new teachers.

10. Place new teachers on committees and study groups in order to inject new ideas into the thinking of the faculty.

11. Provide in-service training opportunities which are designed especially for new teachers. Workshops, study groups, staff meetings, and forums should be made available and should deal with immediate problems of the local school system.

SINGLE-SUBJECT STUDY PLAN

EDUCATORS at all levels have long been unhappy about the fragmentation of the student's school day. At the high-school level a student is expected to give rapt attention at nine o'clock to the teacher's treatise on the causes of the French Revolution; at ten he is required to follow another teacher's intricate explanations of the solution of algebraic equations; at

eleven he hurriedly dresses for basketball practice; and, if he has a late lunch hour, may make a mad rush to his English class at twelve to contemplate the literary qualities of a lyric poem. So goes his day. If he is lucky, he may be able to devote nearly an hour at one sitting to a subject. Usually it is considerably less.

A number of efforts have been made to overcome this piecemeal approach to learning. The core curriculum, common-learning programs, and a variety of other plans are in use. In the May 1, 1952, issue of *Higher Education*, a "Single Subject Study Plan at Chapman College" is described by Donald E. Wilson, associate professor of education in the institution named. The plan has been in operation at Chapman College for the past five years. The gist of the plan is described in the following excerpt:

Under the plan the student is enrolled in a single-subject course, which is given intensive study, 3 class hours (180 minutes) a day, for 5 days a week, for 6 weeks. Five units of credit are allowed for a regular session course. The morning hours are generally given over to the single-subject class, while the afternoon hours are for study, work, and semester classes. Semester courses—those which include primarily physical education, health, and applied courses in music and art—are offered in the afternoon, and are 18 weeks in length. Semester courses carry from one-half to two credits and meet once or twice a week throughout the 18-week semester.

A daily class schedule under the Single Subject Study Plan at Chapman College would be as follows:

8:30-10:00 Single-subject classes.

10:05-10:40 Chapel or convocation (Monday, Wednesday).

10:55-12:25 Single-subject classes continue.

1:30-2:20 Semester classes and study for single subject.

2:25-3:15 Semester classes and study for single subject.

3:20-4:10 Semester classes and study for single subject.

4:15-5:05 Semester classes and study for single subject.

In following such a plan, the student and instructor are both benefited by the concentration of interest and effort in a particular area. Both are freed from the frustration of too many conflicting interests, and the possibility of more creative teaching and learning is greatly amplified. With such a plan there is ample opportunity to take field trips, to have frequent personal conferences, to work on projects, and to engage in other out-of-class programs. This is in contrast to the traditional curricular arrangement, where the scheduling of such exercises and projects becomes a complicated problem.

GUIDANCE PROBLEMS ARISING FROM THE NEW G.I. BILL

A NEW G.I. BILL providing educational and other benefits for veterans who have served on active duty since July 27, 1950, was passed by Congress on July 4, 1952. This act (Public Law 550) provides for payments ranging from \$110 to \$160 per month directly to the veterans. They must pay tuition and similar charges themselves.

The passing of this bill may give rise to some difficult guidance problems for high-school and junior-college counselors. In contrast to the situation that existed during most of World War II, young people entering the armed forces at this time can look for-

ward to receiving financial assistance from the government to help with their education when they leave the service. A boy in sound health knows he must enter military service sooner or later. If he wants more education but is unable to afford it, he can now see a way of financing it after he has completed his service. Therefore, he may be strongly tempted not to try to continue in school or to enter college and complete as much of his education as he can before being drafted. When he enters the service, either as a volunteer or as a draftee, he not only receives regular pay immediately but also the promise of continued support during his post-service educational program.

Against this must be weighed the risks to life and limb that go with active service in the armed forces. Although only a very small fraction of those in the service are likely to be killed or seriously injured under existing conditions, it is not pleasant to be one of those who do become a part of the casualty statistics. Moreover, the situation could change for the worse very suddenly. Strong arguments can be made for the wisdom of deferring military service as long as possible—especially if the boy wants more opportunity for formal education. If he

cannot afford to continue in school or college, these arguments are appreciably weakened. The counselor can, however, help the student to face the issues realistically and rationally.

Another counseling problem may arise in connection with this bill. The provision that the veterans must pay their own tuition may influence them to select the institutions and the courses in which charges are cheapest. If these institutions and courses were all of equal quality, this would obviously be the right thing to do. Unfortunately, the premise of equal quality is untenable. It is well known that some institutions can provide better education than others because of better faculties, libraries, and laboratories. Some courses cost more or take longer to complete than others. This is especially true of those leading to the professions of law, medicine, engineering, and the like.

As veterans gradually return to civilian life and resume their education, counselors must be prepared to help them clarify their goals and select courses carefully. If this help is not effectively given, the loss in educational values may more than offset the "savings" the students would make by selecting less expensive courses.

HAROLD A. ANDERSON

WHO'S WHO FOR SEPTEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles

The news notes in this issue have been prepared by HAROLD A. ANDERSON, assistant professor of education, director of student teaching, and executive secretary of the Committee on Preparation of Teachers at the University of Chicago. MARY NEEL SMITH, co-ordinator of instruction at Gove Junior High School, Denver, Colorado, writes about her experience in increasing the attendance of, participation in, and response to, parent discussion group meetings at her school. GEORGE W. BOND, professor in the Campus School and Department of Education of the State Teachers College, New Paltz, New York, writes about a program which secondary schools can use to help students who are retarded in reading, based on an actual program now in its fifth year of operation. L. ROSS CUMMINS, teaching assistant in education at Yale University, and C. WINFIELD SCOTT, lecturer in educational guidance at Yale University, and director of the Vocational Counseling Service in New Haven, Connecticut, present a review of the literature on community guidance services appearing in 1940-51 and summarize the expression which the literature gives to organizational and operational philosophy. WILLIAM C. KVARACEUS, professor of education

at Boston University, gives the results of a survey conducted to appraise a community's awareness and acceptance of the implications of a community study made in the city about ten years ago. JOHN WITHALL, associate professor of education and director of the Psychological Services Center of the University of Delaware, points out the weaknesses and unfruitfulness of most conventions and discusses ways in which they could be improved. GEORGE GREISEN MALLINSON, professor of psychology and education at Western Michigan College of Education in Kalamazoo, Michigan, and HAROLD VAN DRAGT, teacher of mathematics and guidance counselor at Belding High School, Belding, Michigan, report a study of interests in science and in mathematics as expressed by 240 students in Grade IX and again in Grade XII. PERCIVAL W. HUTSON, professor of education at the University of Pittsburgh, presents a list of selected references on guidance.

Reviewers of books

NEWTON EDWARDS, professor of education at the University of Chicago and the University of Texas. JOSEPH T. DURHAM, instructor at Morgan State College, Baltimore, Maryland. WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago.

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MAKING PARENT DISCUSSION GROUPS MORE EFFECTIVE¹

MARY NEEL SMITH

Gove Junior High School, Denver, Colorado



PARENT DISCUSSION GROUPS, on grade or half-grade levels, have met at Gove Junior High School since 1946, in addition to general parent-teachers' association meetings. The discussion meetings have been scheduled during the school day and have varied in number and length. Usually they have been held once a month for a period of about forty-five minutes. Each discussion group has had a parent-chairman appointed by the P.T.A. president. The author, who serves as co-ordinator of instruction in the school, has carried a major responsibility for scheduling, planning, and participating in the meetings.

PROBLEMS WE FACED

The major problems that we faced during the first year of these grade-level meetings are implied in the following observations:

1. Attendance was small; usually from 4 to 12 parents came although 55-200 pupils were enrolled in each grade.

2. There was an overdependence on

school personnel for keeping things going. The meetings usually seemed to be more the school's than the parents' responsibility.

3. Ineffective means were used to ascertain the real concerns and interests of all parents present. Guesses usually formed the bases for selecting the discussion areas. The very vocal people spoke up, but many parents said little, if anything.

4. Inadequate methods were used to determine satisfaction or lack of satisfaction with the meetings.

5. Few teachers and few fathers of pupils attended the meetings.

ACTION RESEARCH

Beginning during the first semester of 1949, we decided to try to improve these meetings by engaging in a limited action-research program. This involved, first, getting better evidence regarding some rather specific problems that should be attended to if the grade-level meetings were to be improved. Next, we hypothesized that, if certain actions were taken, satisfaction with the meetings and their general worth would increase. These actions—modifications in arrangements and procedures—were then taken. Finally, we collected what evidence we could of the consequences of these modifications and studied the evidence. This led to a new cycle of problems, modifications in arrangements

¹ This is a report of one of a number of projects undertaken by Denver principals and co-ordinators in co-operation with the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation of Teachers College, Columbia University. The studies are all designed to learn more about educational leadership.

and procedures, and collection and interpretation of evidence.

Although much the same efforts were made to improve these small discussion groups throughout all the grade levels, our experimentation, including the procuring of evidence, was limited to the parents of pupils in Grade VII because this group included the largest per cent of parents new to the school and because it offered opportunity for study over a three-year period. This group (parents of pupils in both semesters of Grade VII) met once a month for four months during the first semester of 1949-50, and the meetings were approximately forty-five minutes in length.

We employed two methods of gathering data that would make more specific the general problems described above. First, detailed minutes were kept, which recorded the way the group went about its work (the process) as well as the content of the discussion. Second, records were made of the evaluation and planning meetings attended by the parent-chairman, the co-ordinator, and the principal.

Our analysis of the minutes of the first three meetings confirmed the major difficulties, with the possible exception of Problem 1 related to attendance, that we had already identified as interfering with the success of all the small discussion groups. In this experimental group, from twenty-two to forty-five parents attended each meeting during the first semester.

At the end of the third meeting we used a post-meeting evaluation form

for the first time in order to get suggestions and reactions from all present. On this form the parents were asked to indicate whether they considered the meeting (a) very helpful, (b) satisfactory, (c) unimpressive, or (d) a waste of time. They were also asked to list the questions that they wished to have considered at the meetings and to suggest what might be done to improve the meetings.

The simple form provided much more complete evidence regarding the success of a meeting than the subjective impression of a chairman or the chance comments made by members of the group. When we tabulated and studied the parents' reactions to the third meeting, we learned that:

1. Many felt there was too little time for discussion when meetings lasted only forty-five minutes.

2. When parents had a chance to write suggestions for problems to be discussed at the next meeting, many points of view were represented, not only those of the vocal parents. However, eight out of twenty-two parents attending this meeting still were not involved in setting up plans for the next meeting, inasmuch as they made no suggestion of problems to be considered.

3. A number of specific actions could be taken to improve this discussion group.

With this additional evidence of the nature of the problems in one particular parent discussion group, we felt ready to introduce some planned modifications that we predicted would bring about improvement. Our hypothesis or "hunch" might be stated as follows:

Satisfaction with the meetings will be increased if:

1. Areas for discussion in the group are de-

terminated by written suggestions from group members.

2. Some leadership-education sessions for parent-chairmen are held prior to the meeting.
3. Opportunity for written evaluation is provided at the end of the meeting in order to indicate feelings about the meeting and make suggestions for improving the next one.
4. To permit more discussion, meeting time is doubled or increased.

Because we wanted more than our own subjective impressions, or those of a few others, of the consequences of these changes, we tried rather systematically, during and after each meeting, to get evidence of its worth.

WHAT WE DID

Beginning with the second semester of 1949-50, we doubled the time for each monthly meeting of the group, and experimental-group meetings were set up on a half-grade rather than on the whole-grade basis. This meant that only the parents of children in the latter half of Grade VII were members of the experimental group during the second semester. Some of the meetings were held in the evening so that fathers of pupils and all teachers would be free to attend.

To help parent-leaders of the group become more sensitive to certain important aspects of group process and to help them deal more adequately with their leadership problems and develop a sense of security in their role, joint meetings of chairmen of all the discussion groups were held before the meetings of the discussion groups. Some mimeographed materials were

used that called attention to the responsibilities of the group leader and to ways in which these responsibilities might be met. The co-ordinator of instruction acted as chairman of this leadership-education group. Special effort was made to call attention to the ways of working within this leadership group, and stress was placed on those procedures, such as agenda-building, timing, encouraging participation, reaching agreements or decisions, summarizing, and evaluating, that would be useful in each chairman's group in analogous situations.

The regular use of written post-meeting evaluation forms was introduced in the discussion group during the second semester to determine how people felt about the meetings and how the meetings might be improved.

Table 1 reports certain facts about the five consecutive meetings of this experimental group after we began to work intensively to improve the meetings. The column showing number present indicated that what we did had little effect on attendance although the change to evening meetings complicates these attendance figures. It seems likely that our efforts to increase the spread of oral participation met with only partial success. This is shown by the per cents of persons taking part in the discussion, which varied considerably. It seems likely that oral participation was affected by factors in the total situation other than our efforts at improvement.

We thought, too, that the number of parents going to the trouble of fill-

ing out and handing in the post-meeting evaluation forms at the end of the meeting would be one indication of interest in the meetings. Again, no particular trend is shown by the per cents. There was no significant change during the nine-month period in the

per cent of parents making suggestions for improving the meetings or in the per cent suggesting problems to be considered "next time."

Table 2 represents our attempt to describe other aspects of the meetings which might supply some indication

TABLE 1
PARTICIPATION IN FIVE CONSECUTIVE MEETINGS OF PARENT GROUPS

DATE AND TIME OF MEETING	NUMBER OF PERSONS PRESENT	PERSONS TAKING PART IN DISCUSSION		PERSONS TURNING IN EVALUATION FORMS		PERSONS MAKING WRITTEN SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING MEETINGS		PERSONS SUGGESTING PROBLEMS FOR NEXT MEETING	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
March 20, 1950 (afternoon)...	32	18	56	22	68	6	19	18	56
April 17, 1950 (first evening meeting).....	55	12	22	25	45	17	31	15	27
May 15, 1950 (evening).....	38	17	45	19	50	9	24	9	24
November 15, 1950 (evening)...	49	49	100	37	75	15	31	14	29
January 12, 1951 (afternoon)...	24	9	38	16	67	3	13	10	42

TABLE 2
QUALITY OF PARTICIPATION IN PARENT GROUP MEETINGS

DATE OF MEETING	NUMBER OF PERSONS PRESENT	PERSONS MAKING SUGGESTIONS FOR THE AGENDA		PERSONS RAISING QUESTIONS		PERSONS ADDING IDEAS		PERSONS (INCLUDING CHAIRMAN) ASSUMING DEFINITE RESPONSIBILITY	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
March 20, 1950.....	32	4*	12	12	37.5	31§	97	7	22
April 17, 1950.....	55	18*	33	5	9	14	25	5#	9
May 15, 1950.....	38	15*	39	13	34	29	79	3**	8
November 15, 1950..	49	48†	97	49‡	100	49‡	100	12	25
January 10, 1951....	24	14*	68	9	37.5	15	60	4††	16

* Suggestions made on evaluation forms at preceding meeting.

† Suggestions made on a special questionnaire administered on Back-to-School Night.

‡ This meeting included a "buzz" session. Every person present either raised a question or added an idea.

§ This includes each contribution by any one person.

|| Chairman plus six participants in a panel.

Chairman plus four—secretary, panel, and moderator.

** Chairman-secretary plus two.

†† Chairman plus recorder, skit summarizer, and discussion summarizer.

of their quality. We thought that different levels of participation might be implied by:

1. *Oral participation*, which is generally the most common form of participation and is assumed to require the least effort. Increase in oral participation alone does suggest, however, that a group member is assuming additional responsibility.

ings had been asked to do so prior to the opening of the meeting. Obviously, this fact may have limited this type of participation. On the other hand, opportunities for assuming responsibility could be rejected before the meeting. Only four out of the twelve who assumed definite leader-

TABLE 3

DEGREE OF SATISFACTION WITH THE MEETING AS SHOWN IN EVALUATION FORMS

DATE OF MEETING	NUMBER OF PARENTS ATTENDING	FORMS HANDED IN		RATING OF MEETING									
				Very Satisfactory		Satisfactory		Acceptable		Unimpressive		Inadequate	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
March 20, 1950*	32	22	68	9	41	9	41	2	9
April 17, 1950...	55	25	48	4	16	5	20	3	36	1	4	6	24
May 15, 1950†..	38	19	50	7	37	8	42	5	26
November 15, 1950.....	49	37	75	23	62	13	35	1	3
January 10, 1951	24	16	67	3	19	9	56	4	25

* Not all persons handing in forms reported their over-all feeling about the meeting.

† One person marked both "Very Satisfactory" and "Acceptable."

2. *Written suggestions for the agenda*, which also indicate interest and concern in the content of the next discussion and a desire to contribute a suggestion on which plans might be built.

3. *Assumption of leadership responsibility*, which implies a high level of participation—a conscious assuming of responsibility for the success of the meetings.

In light of these levels of participation, Table 2 indicates a tendency toward increase in the number of written suggestions but little evidence of a trend in the other two levels.

It is interesting to note that, with the exception of the November 15 meeting, all those who assumed a definite responsibility in any of the meet-

ship responsibility at the November 15 meeting had been asked to do so prior to the meeting.

Practically 100 per cent of parents filling in post-meeting evaluation forms responded to the question asking for an indication of the degree of satisfaction with the meeting. While responses to the other items on the forms (ranging from three to seven in number because of revisions in the form used) were frequently omitted, at no meeting after the first did anyone fail to report his over-all feeling about the success of the meeting.

Table 3 indicates that the meetings generally were satisfactory. For the

most part, factors inherent in the total situation seem to make the "poor" reaction end of the scale practically worthless. Were the parents hesitant to rate at this end? If so, why did they not omit this rating altogether? Does this fact indicate lack of discrimination? The meeting that was generally considered to be poorest (April 17) shows differing responses and the widest variance. We thought that the index of general satisfaction with the meeting would vary with the number who participated in each meeting. The correspondence actually was exact, but, because there were only six meetings, we hesitate to emphasize a one-to-one relation between satisfaction and spread of participation.

GENERALIZATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

In general, our predictions as to what would happen if we tried this or that method of improving the meetings were rather well supported by our evidence. This means of seeking practical solutions to problems in the area of group work seems to have real possibilities. For example, the April 17 meeting was confused and very unsatisfactory to some. The reason, as indicated on the post-meeting reaction forms, seems to have been that there was no agreed-upon purpose. From discussing this situation and from considering the post-meeting evaluations, the whole group of parents learned the value of clarifying and agreeing upon a purpose at the beginning of a meeting. Some more specific generalizations follow.

1. There seems to be a substantial relation between participation in, and satisfaction with, parent discussion meetings. This fact has implications for the traditional P.T.A. meeting, which is limited largely to the transaction of routine business and the use of special speakers or lecturers.

2. The "buzz" session (November 15) and the parent panel followed by group discussion (March 20) were the techniques employed at the two meetings which resulted in the expression of most satisfaction by those attending. There are great possibilities in the use of these techniques to stimulate group participation.

3. The length of the discussion period seems to bear directly on the degree of participation. We found that discussion periods of one hour and a half were not too long; forty-five-minute discussion periods were much too short.

4. In this community the attendance at, and participation in, the meetings by teachers and fathers of pupils as well as mothers is an important factor. Attendance is greatly increased at evening meetings which all teachers and pupils' fathers may attend.

5. Taking time at the beginning of a meeting to summarize the evaluation of the previous meeting is one way to increase sensitivity to good group process.

6. It would be interesting to investigate the degree to which common understanding of purpose of, and sat-

isfaction with, a meeting are related.

7. The more satisfying a meeting seems to be, the larger the per cent of post-meeting evaluation forms filled in and returned at the end of the meeting. This situation may result from hesitancy to turn in unfavorable reactions. It would seem rather to be related to a feeling of being involved and wishing "to get one's say in."

8. Suggestions for improvement of group work become increasingly refined as groups have experience with different ways of working. In other words, sensitizing a group to elements of group process improves the ways of working of a group and increases the quantity and quality of suggestions by the group for the improvement of their ways of working.

9. A step toward the further improvement of discussion groups might be the making of plans for at least one joint meeting of all discussion groups each year to share ideas and to report findings and agreements reached. A short coffee hour after each round of meetings might be the means of keeping the feeling of a total parent group rather than the feeling of six separate parent groups—since all discussion groups will be meeting at the same time.

10. A study of the relative values of a detailed analysis of a single meeting and a composite analysis of several meetings for the purpose of getting evidence on group dynamics might prove an interesting and worth-while undertaking in this area.

A PROGRAM FOR IMPROVING READING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

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STUDENTS UNABLE TO READ with enough efficiency to meet the academic demands of the modern high school are reaching the secondary level each year despite the fact that the teaching of reading in our elementary schools is today better than ever before. Numerous studies conducted by competent educators indicate that from 10 to 15 per cent of our secondary-school students are not reading on a level generally expected of normal children of that age. The trend in many schools is to meet the problems of these poor readers by assigning them to "general" or "industrial" courses, where reading requirements are light and where content is considerably "watered down." Parents are told that their children are "hand-minded" and cannot do well in verbal courses, when the truth is that many so-called "hand-minded" children can succeed in verbal courses if they are taught effective reading and study skills.

The purpose of this paper is to suggest a program which secondary schools can use to help students who are retarded in reading. The suggestions are based on an actual reading program now in its fifth year of operation in the Germantown Friends School, an independent, coeducational

school in Philadelphia. The writer was responsible for the program during the first three years. It is true that, in terms of mental ability and socioeconomic advantages, the students in this school are a select group. However, the results indicate that similar programs would bring significant improvement in the reading ability of students in all secondary schools.

It is important to point out that, in this school, reading is thought of as a skill which serves as one of the most important tools in the learning process. Teachers in the elementary grades are trained in modern methods of teaching reading, and a special teacher of reading is available to give individual tutoring to children who fall behind. Thorough, systematic testing serves to confirm the evaluation of each child's reading by his teacher. Excellent co-operation is given the teacher of reading by the regular classroom teachers. Nevertheless, students still reach the secondary school in need of additional help in reading.

IDENTIFYING THE POOR READERS

Each child comes under the control of the secondary-school reading program when he enters Grade VII. At this grade level the school program becomes departmentalized, and the

kinds of reading requirements expand rapidly. Group tests are given to determine reading-vocabulary level, comprehension level, and speed of reading. When, in terms of his intelligence, a child scores low on the group tests, a notice is sent to the parents, telling of the low scores in reading and suggesting group instruction for the child. Every effort is made to confer with the parents of each child in order to explain the reading program and gain their co-operation and understanding.

At the tenth-grade level another group test of reading is given for the purpose of identifying those students who may have read acceptably in Grade VII but who fell behind during Grades VIII and IX. These poor readers can be given help before they leave the secondary school to enter college.

Students also get into the reading program in two other ways: (1) by receiving a low score on an individual reading test, the taking of which may be recommended by the teacher or requested by the parents at any time; (2) by receiving a low score on the reading test that is administered to all incoming transfer students. Since both the faculty and the parents are well informed about the reading program, numerous students are recommended to the program each year. Sometimes students who are not poor readers take reading instruction because they desire to strengthen their reading and study skills.

ORGANIZING FOR INSTRUCTION

Every effort is made to group students for instruction according to their

ability and their specific reading needs. Because of the nature of the testing program, most students in the reading program are in Grades VII and

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION BY GRADE AND SEX
OF CHILDREN TUTORED

Grade	Girls	Boys	Total
VII.....	22	26	48
VIII.....	3	4	7
IX.....	6	11	17
X.....	13	13	26
XI.....	0	1	1
XII.....	1	3	4
Total:			
Number..	45	58	103
Per cent..	43.7	56.3	100.0

X, so that most instructional groups are organized at these levels. However, at times eighth-grade children are placed in groups of seventh-graders, and ninth-grade children are placed in groups of tenth-graders. Usually all the children in each group are in the same grade. Table 1 shows the distribution of the children tutored during the first three years of the program.

Since group size never exceeds five students, it sometimes becomes necessary to have several groups at one grade level. Those students needing instruction in vocabulary enrichment and comprehension skills are placed together, and those needing instruction only to increase their reading speed are placed together. The size of the group is limited to five because the size of the special room used for reading instruction does not permit larger classes. There is reason to feel, however, that increasing the size of the

group up to ten students would not significantly lower the results.

Reading groups are scheduled for two meetings weekly, each lasting about fifty minutes. It is felt that more frequent instruction is desirable, but at present three or more lessons weekly are not administratively possible. Children are scheduled directly to reading class during the school day. When conflicts occur in the schedules of seriously retarded readers, reading class is given priority. This involves no serious faculty disagreements since most of the staff members are enthusiastic about the reading program.

THE READING PROGRAM

Regardless of the nature of the group, sound study habits are taught as a matter of routine. Using the student's own books, the following topics are covered, and frequent practice is given each student under careful supervision:

1. How to read a textbook.
2. How to master a chapter.
3. How to take good notes.
4. How to remember what is read.
5. How to budget study time.
6. How to prepare for and take examinations.
7. How to read a novel.

For students with impoverished reading vocabularies, a functional approach to vocabulary enrichment is used. No standardized word lists are followed. Rather, extensive reading of interesting material is done each day, with students checking all new words. Each new word is placed on a card about the size of a calling card, and several synonyms obtained from the

dictionary are placed on the other side. The students carry these cards with them and review their words many times each day. From time to time the instructor goes over each student's words with him, and words which have been mastered are taken from the card file.

To encourage interest in words and to help the students develop multiple meanings for words, vocabulary games are frequently part of the daily lesson. For those needing it, a systematic study is made of phonics, prefixes, suffixes, root words, syllables, and dictionary skills.

Students weak in comprehension skills get extensive practice in selecting the main ideas in paragraphs; identifying topic and summary sentences; using transition words such as *however*, *nevertheless*, and *consequently* to gain meaning; organizing important ideas into logical sequence; skimming for specific facts; looking for key words; and reading to note details. As in all other phases of the program, the student's regular schoolbooks are used whenever possible, supplemented with carefully selected materials.

When a student has a strong reading vocabulary and good comprehension skills, developing speed in reading is usually not difficult. The mechanics of the eyes when reading are discussed, and extensive reading of easy but interesting material is done under time limits. Occasionally, a three- by five-inch card is used by the instructor as a pacing device to help a student break through the barrier of his established habit of reading slowly. Some

tachistoscopic training is given to help students increase their span of recognition. Under no condition is reading to increase speed done without a careful check on comprehension, and each student keeps a graph showing his daily progress in speed and comprehension.

A daily lesson for a reading group usually contains four or five different activities, some group and some individual. For example, as a group the students might read part of a play to develop oral reading, improve word attack, select main ideas, and enrich vocabulary. Individually, while some students review vocabulary cards, others are reading to note details, skimming to find facts, or mastering a chapter in a textbook. It is possible, through careful planning, for the instructor to give much individual instruction and guidance.

MATERIALS USED IN READING INSTRUCTION

Although many mechanical devices designed to aid in the teaching of reading are available on the market today, this program tends to avoid them with the exception of the tachistoscope or, as it is commonly called, the flashmeter. This instrument is used to help students who have poor perception or a short span of recognition.

Because the instructional groups are small, it is possible to buy a wide variety of books rather than large numbers of the same book. There is great value in having students help select their own reading materials. At times, for purposes of explanation and

demonstration, each class member must have the same material. For example, in learning how to master a chapter in a textbook, all the students use the same history book for the demonstration and for several practice exercises under supervision before using books of their own choice. The school is fortunate in having an excellent public library next door, and the students use it extensively.

Carefully selected workbooks are available but are used with discrimination to give students practice in specific kinds of reading situations. Students write on a separate sheet of paper rather than in the workbook; thus we avoid the expense of replacing workbooks with each class.

DURATION OF INSTRUCTION

Reading classes are scheduled for an indefinite length of time, with every assurance to both the parents and the students that instruction will be discontinued when the student reaches a satisfactory reading level. Graphs of daily progress are kept by each student, standardized reading tests are given periodically, and classroom teachers are consulted frequently. When the reading teacher feels that a child has gained sufficient mastery of the reading processes to compete successfully in his group, the child discontinues instruction, and a report is sent to the home and also to the school administrator, who channels it to the staff.

RESULTS

During the first three years that this reading program was conducted,

it was possible to give instruction to 103 students. Two students were given individual help because they were Seniors and needed radical therapy. The remaining 101 students had group work. As previously indicated, no set number of lessons was planned, but the average student remained in reading class 14 weeks and had an average of 24.7 lessons. The least number of lessons taken was 4, by a student who could see no value in the course and dropped out. The largest number of lessons taken was 47, by a student who began work in the spring and continued to the end of the school year. A retest in the following September disclosed that this student needed still further instruction, which was given during the fall semester. Seven others took a second program of reading instruction because they did not maintain the gains they made during the first class.

"Before-and-after" tests of silent reading disclose an average gain of twenty-two months per student. There were two students who scored lower on the retest than on the original test: one scored seven months lower after twenty reading lessons, and the other scored one month lower after twenty-one reading lessons. A third student gained only one month after twenty-one lessons. For the other students, the range in gain was from eight to forty-eight months.

It was pointed out in the section of this article dealing with instructional techniques that study habits were taught in all reading groups as a matter of routine. Since there are no

standardized tests for measuring improvement in study skills, an objective evaluation of student progress was not possible. Conferences with parents and teachers and a study of academic marks indicate that many of the students who did not make large gains in reading did, however, improve in their class work as a result of knowing how to study more effectively.

CONCLUDING COMMENT

Not all the students who took this work made significant gains. The needs of some were too complex to be met by the program offered. For the most part, the students who took instruction felt that it had real value for them and they were enthusiastic about it. Members of the faculty were sincerely co-operative in backing the program. Some went so far as to attend the reading classes, especially sessions on improving study habits, and then used the techniques they learned to help the pupils in their own classes. Parents of those students who needed special help became strong, active supporters of the reading program. A special course in reading was offered in the Adult Evening School, and several parents enrolled for instruction in the adult classes conducted at the University of Pennsylvania Reading Clinic.

The results of the first three years' work at the secondary-school level in this independent, coeducational, Philadelphia school indicate that group work in reading can be effective and that a reading program can bring worth-while improvement in the reading and study skills of students.

PHILOSOPHICAL BASES OF COMMUNITY GUIDANCE SERVICES

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AN OVERVIEW of the literature on community guidance services appearing from 1940 through October, 1951, shows predominant support for an approach to the provision of these services through educational agencies and institutions. A minority viewpoint, however, reflects the belief that the initiative should be taken by well-established non-school agencies. Descriptions of the services are so generally inadequate that it is difficult to decide which is the more prevalent functioning philosophy.

In the review of the literature reported in this article, titles which emphasized mental hygiene, social case work, child guidance, and industrial personnel work were excluded from consideration. This exclusion implies the concept on which this review of the literature is based. "Community guidance service," as used in this review, implies a counseling program intended primarily for out-of-school youth and adults but available to any local resident, which focuses primarily on assisting with educational and vocational choice, planning, and adjustment but which may also deal with other related problems.

Even among titles considered pertinent, the textbooks, for the most part, were found to be fragmentary and, with few exceptions (8, 34), to give only peripheral or indirect attention to the problem of basic philosophy. In this review the expression which the literature was found to give to organizational and operational philosophy will be summarized under the following heads, with only the most pertinent or typical references being cited: "Auspices," "Services Rendered," "Clientele," "Professional Staff," and "Interagency Relationships." "Major Persistent Problems" will comprise a closing section.

AUSPICES

A majority of the references examined identify educational institutions as the logical sponsors of guidance agencies, with school or college administrators acting as leaders in the development of programs, and educational facilities and personnel as the providers of services rendered. Blum and Balinsky classify counseling centers into two types: those affiliated with a school or educational institution and those sponsored directly by a

community (6: 53). Public and private collegiate institutions appear to be the most common sponsors, for 50 of the 132 services included in the first directory of vocational counseling agencies approved by the National Vocational Guidance Association (31) were sponsored by an institution of this kind. An analysis of the directory descriptions of the 50 centers revealed that "approximately 60 per cent . . . are open to adolescents and adults outside the institution, and about 20 per cent are open to outside clients of all ages and levels of schooling" (14: 466-67). Hence, a majority of these agencies qualify as community agencies in terms of services rendered.

Mathewson, in setting forth the merits of the public-supported education system for provision of "an efficient national program of personnel service," supports this medium as "the most economical and, at the same time, the most effective means of making such guidance service available to the public" (27: 248). In 1944, Earl J. McGrath, now United States commissioner of education, stated that the schools should take more initiative in extending guidance services to the community at large (25: 80), and a recent summary by Blum and Balinsky holds the same position (6: 68).

Several statements (9, 17, 19) aver that there is no one best pattern for developing a community guidance service and suggest, explicitly or implicitly, that each community take stock of its own situation and then de-

cide what kind of service would best suit its needs. These and other statements reflect cognizance of a need for broad participation by representative citizens in both the planning and the operating stages, apparently assuming that this participation will promote the widest possible acceptance and support and will also tend to preclude domination of guidance service by any one interest group.

Those who support the continuation and expansion of existing counseling programs being operated by non-school agencies identify some such agencies as the Young Men's Christian Association (8), the Young Women's Christian Association (2), Jewish service organizations (4), and the Big Brother Movement (16). Existing agencies naturally derive their financial support from their sponsors through such sources as public taxation and special drives for donations. A less frequent source of support is a private philanthropic foundation, such as the Carnegie Corporation (1; 39: 39). Also, fees from clients who are able to pay may constitute an important, presumably even a major, source of income (34).

One writer recommends that a community guidance service be "financed by the co-operating agencies" (17: 25), and several authors (5, 7, 11, 39) suggest as a practical consideration the use of temporarily available federal funds. Such funds are transient (11, 33), and, in addition, their use carries the threat of loss of local interest and support. Some agencies start-

ed with federal support have survived discontinuance of this subsidy, for example, the school-sponsored counseling service in Detroit (22; 6: 66-68). Others, for example, the National Youth Administration center that was located in New Haven, Connecticut (11), have had to close shop. Only a permanent policy of federal support (27: 71; 29) would seem to avoid this danger.

SERVICES RENDERED

Although some community guidance agencies seem to favor the group approach as well as individual counseling, the latter is generally regarded as the most important part of the program. As an extension of basic counseling, some agencies offer employment or placement service, working within the framework of a locally prepared list of available jobs or occupational opportunity file (4, 16, 39). Other programs tend to emphasize the testing aspect of guidance (1). The literature in these latter instances suggests that concern with testing or placement may be taking precedence over a comprehensive view of the function of counseling itself.

Instead of reflecting special emphases, descriptions of real or theoretical community programs sometimes indicate that agencies should accept all types of problems. An example of this orientation is seen in a program that would "provide an opportunity for every youth to receive counsel and encouragement in dealing with any kind of difficulty or personal, social, or

vocational problem which may confront him" (23: 470-72). Another type of vague generality is seen in the term "adjustment counseling" (9, 18, 26, 28). In properly evaluating such statements, it is necessary to distinguish between *projections of desirable services* and *descriptions of actual programs*.

Comprehensiveness has also been reflected by an extended listing of multiple services and responsibilities, such as testing, placement, and follow-up; fostering community co-operation; sponsoring a community survey; conducting a youth survey; and functioning as an information center (23: 470-72). Problems dealt with may include economic readjustment, housing, family disintegration, marital conflicts and accommodations, status of women, and "problems of children and youth" (2: 4).

Another orientation, perhaps reflecting a keener rather than a lesser sense of responsibility, maintains that community guidance agencies should not assume the posture of omniscience. Such an opinion is given by outside observers in social work (11, 32) and also by inside observers. An example of the latter type of opinion comes from the counseling center in Rochester, New York:

As the center has become better known, the staff larger, and the background of experience broader, referrals have been received from all of the [community social service] agencies . . . with a corresponding increase in the types of problems handled. The . . . counselors have likewise become increasingly sensitive to those cases which

might better be referred to psychiatrists, physicians, corrective speech experts, or other specialists [36: 208].

Group guidance by community agencies is currently being promoted by the Jewish service organization B'nai B'rith (4: 279-80) and by at least one YMCA (38). It has also been attempted (successfully, it is said) with community clients under public school auspices (24). Although some agencies hold group guidance to be of value in its own right (4), its use may also be interpreted as capitulation to the urgency of situations where there are not enough counselors to render needed service exclusively on an individual counseling basis (24).

Another type of service which community guidance agencies provide is that of educating the community toward "guidance-mindedness." This is not only a necessary supportive function in terms of budgetary considerations (33) but also a front-line service function which encourages potential clients to seek and use counseling. Concerning the relationship between a guidance point of view and actual community help to individuals, Mathewson has said "given the first, the latter will follow" (27: 136).

Other services rendered by community guidance programs include occupational research leading to publication of useful data (4, 19) and the training of professional guidance workers (17).

CLIENTELE

While extending a relatively unrestricted eligibility, the community

guidance agency normally expects that students, workers, or veterans who have access to guidance facilities elsewhere will constitute a much smaller fraction of the case load than out-of-school youth and adults who are not entitled to restricted institutional services (20: 422-23; 33: 40). Agencies sponsored by collegiate institutions ordinarily give priority to their own students, but a majority of them serve the public as well (14: 466-67).

In several instances the unmet needs of special groups have provided motivation for the establishment of community counseling services. Examples of this are seen in the B'nai B'rith (4), YMCA (8), YWCA (2), Big Brother Movement (16), and adult evening schools (10, 15, 21, 23, 24). Many of the counseling services sponsored by these agencies serve members and nonmembers alike. The well-staffed Jewish Counseling Vocational Services, for example, while primarily oriented to serve the needs of a particular cultural group, usually do not limit their services to Jewish clientele (4).

PROFESSIONAL STAFF

University training, especially at the graduate level, appears as a major desideratum in the professional preparation of community counselors. Several writers imply (1, 5, 35), and Mathewson states clearly (27: 184-90), that graduate training in education is the preferred core around which to build a training program for counselors. Other training recommendations call for a Master's degree in

"guidance and personnel" (4: 280) or a "graduate degree" in social case work *or* educational guidance *or* psychology (2: 11). Sampson (32), a social worker, calls for interprofessional co-operation and integration in the training of guidance and personnel workers.

With respect to experiential background for community counselors, the educationists make strong implications, if not specific statements, that teaching experience is valuable (27). Sampson (32) supports social-case-work experience as a prerequisite to competent counseling, and Baer (4) favors group-work experience. Seay, as well as Sampson, cites the need for interprofessional pooling of experience and insight: "A clinic may include a counselor, a tester, a social worker, and a doctor" (35: 5). Ward (39) asserts the importance of wide industrial or other occupational experience as part of a counselor's preparation, apparently feeling that this experience has even more relevance than academic training. Concerning distinctive capabilities of the community counselor, Crow and Crow state that he "should be equipped especially to deal with adults and their problems" (12: 327).

INTERAGENCY RELATIONSHIPS

During the period of developing the idea of a center and recruiting support for it, the popular conception of the undertaking seems to be one in which many interest groups are working together on a common project (3, 17, 23, 30). This orientation finds logical ex-

pression in the formation of a "community guidance council," which typically includes representatives from the local branches of the American Association of University Women, the Business and Professional Women's Club, the board of public welfare, the American Legion and the Legion Auxiliary, the civic and commerce association, the Agricultural Extension Service, the state employment service, and the county ministerial association (3: 28).

A second aspect of interagency relations appears after operation has actually started or at a stage where plans have been crystallized and accepted to the extent that the new agency has a position and the beginnings of status in the local social-service constellation. Here the key word is *co-ordination*. Some writers see the school-sponsored agency in the role of dominant, aggressive "co-ordinator" (26: 6)—a manipulator of other agencies. A less ambitious school-sponsored program would "co-operate with . . . social-work leaders" and "help co-ordinate the activities of the numerous organizations and agencies whose objectives have to do with youth guidance" (23: 470-72).

Further moderation is seen in statements to the effect that the community counseling service should not be a competing agency and should not impose a point of view (17: 27). Since social workers tend to regard school-sponsored vocational guidance as something of an upstart, spokesmen from the first profession state or imply that the school-sponsored community

counseling agency, as a newcomer, should in some measure passively submit to "being co-ordinated" (11, 32). Admonitions to the vocational counselor include a warning against attempting to deal with emotional problems "except under the direction of a qualified psychiatrist" (39: 120). It is also felt that the community counseling service should be a typical (reporting as well as receiving) participant in the social-service exchange.

The third basic aspect of interagency relations deals with the case-by-case service effort. Froehlich (17), Smith and Lipsett (36), and Scott (34), among others, recognize the importance of interagency collaboration and referral of clients.

MAJOR PERSISTENT PROBLEMS

Considering the recent literature as a whole and weighing it in terms of personal experiences, the thoughtful worker in the field of community guidance is still likely to feel that he is heir to a preponderance of unanswered questions.

Is the proper function of the community agency restricted to the provision of educational and vocational counseling, mainly on an individual basis, or should the agency have a much wider range of services? What about clientele? Is the relatively unrestricted availability of the community agency desirable? Should counselors have their basic training in psychology or social work, or should their basic preparation be regular employment in business and industry? How many

specialties or disciplines should be represented in the staff of an agency? Is it best for the new type of agency to fit into the social-agency pattern, or should it retain its distinctiveness while working co-operatively with other agencies? These problems are covered to some extent in the literature. Others remain unmentioned or are, at best, only hinted at.

Among the implied problems is the issue that Mathewson (27: chaps. ii-iv; see also 6: 533) refers to as the "developmental approach versus the selective approach" in guidance. The developmental concern gives priority to the interests of the individual—his needs and the optimum enrichment of his growth. The selective concern gives priority to the interests of society, social efficiency, and to the placing of "round pegs in round holes" as a prerequisite for optimum division and distribution of labor. A counseling agency not clear about its orientation with respect to these two foci may find itself in a serious dilemma.

An illustrative situation is one which can develop within the framework of a community counseling service that also serves industry through screening of job applicants, evaluation of employees for promotion or reassignment, and, possibly, provision of other consultative assistance. It is obvious that the community agency, in serving industry, maintains a predominantly selective orientation; society is really the client in this case. When the same agency attempts to provide developmental guidance to in-

dividual clients—especially when a client concerned is a previous, a current, or a subsequent referral from an industry—the agency's operational orientation is likely to become complicated. In a somewhat analogous situation were the guidance agencies working under contract with the Veterans Administration—an arrangement which frequently entailed involvement in a dual counselor-judge (developmental-selective) relationship.

What is the basic difference, if any, between the role of the community counselor and the role of the counselor of employees or pupils? The literature might lead the reader to caricature community counseling as a benevolent parent who considers gainful employment the answer to all problems of the clients. Like the counselor of employees or pupils, the community counselor frequently appears as just another outpost of official society, whose mission is to help, that is, control, the weak, helpless, or recalcitrant fringe.

Counselors working with community clients frequently have less pre-counseling access to personal-history data and tend to have less authority than do school or industrial counselors. Are these limitations on knowledge and potential control inevitable liabilities? Or might they better be regarded as assets?

Do community clients who apply for help voluntarily, or even semivoluntarily if they have been referred by other agencies, tend to present a dif-

ferent situation from that presented by the employee or the pupil counselee? It is conceivable that community clients might typically be expected to show greater initiative and more active participation in the counseling relationship, but they might also be expected to feel greater freedom to reject help. The literature reviewed failed to throw any light on this matter.

Does the community client's self-concept tend to resemble that of the indigent clinic patient, or does he more frequently expect a relationship of inviolable privacy such as his family doctor observes? If the latter is expected, how does this bear on Ward's suggestion that community counselors should routinely exchange confidential information with the social-service exchange, just as social agencies do (39: 27).

What about the actual process and dynamics operating in the interagency referral of clients? Which agency has primary responsibility for the client, the agency which saw him first or the agency whose specialty is most appropriate to his basic problem? How is this determined, especially when there is a duplication of service among agencies? How may the client be prevented from feeling like a worm among many chickens? Most of the literature affirms a need for interagency co-ordination, but the language is mostly projective and goal-setting rather than concrete and descriptive of actual processes.

Should the community counselor

consciously introduce any element of moral judgment or value counseling in his relationships with clients? What role, if any, should organized religion play in community counseling service? Are secular educators justified in their assumption of community guidance leadership? What should be the nature and the extent of lay participation in the development and management of community guidance programs? Brod-

erick (8) has said enough to imply the relevance of these questions, but finding answers to them and to other problems still remains a challenge.

The existence of so many unanswered questions in connection with community guidance services suggests that the field is a rich one for research. Moreover, for studies producing reliable conclusions, there is an immediate and important field of application.

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WHAT THE ELMTOWNERS THINK OF THE ELMTOWN STUDY

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THE ELMTOWN REPORT,¹ published as one of a series of studies of Middle Western communities under the auspices of the Committee on Human Development of the University of Chicago, focuses on the social behavior of high-school-age adolescents during the school year 1941-42 in Elmtown. This report tends to confirm the hypothesis: "The social behavior of adolescents [is] related functionally to the position their families occupy in the social structure of the community."²

PURPOSE, MATERIAL, AND PROCEDURE OF SURVEY

In the summer of 1950—just eight years after the Elmtown study was concluded and about a year after publication of the Hollingshead report—a field trip to Elmtown was undertaken by fifteen graduate students³

¹ A. B. Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949.

² *Ibid.*, p. 9.

³ The survey team included the following graduate students who were enrolled in either of two sections of a course in mental hygiene: George Bargh, Richard Beym, Gale Blakeslee, Ruth Burchelt, Jane Cordell, Michael Escorcía, Willard Gholson, Roberta Hopper, Lloyd Johnson, Harry Kinert, Michael Lennoch, Alice Petrica, Thelma Reagan, James Riley, and Darlene Schaeffer.

enrolled in summer-session classes at the University of Illinois. The purpose of this field trip, undertaken as an outgrowth of the students' keen interest in the behavioral implications of class status within the community social structure, was to appraise the community's awareness and acceptance of the implications of the University of Chicago study. The reader who has studied the Hollingshead report will appreciate the reasons for such a survey.

Prior to the field trip, three steps were taken:

1. An inquiry form, or interview guide, was prepared with some care.
2. A map of Elmtown was obtained to enable a thorough area sampling of the community on a random basis.
3. The survey team was carefully oriented to desirable and effective interview techniques and methodology.

The inquiry form sought out information in three areas. First, certain specific data regarding class status of the respondent, including such items as residence area, type of home, sources of income, occupation, and membership in various organizations within the community, were obtained in order to classify the respondent within the community's

social structure. Second, information concerning the respondent's knowledge of the Elmtown study, including a statement showing whether he had read the book, or had heard about it, or had taken part in the study, was requested in order to note community awareness of the published report. Third, the last section of the inquiry form requested information on the opinions and attitudes of the respondent toward the study and its findings and toward its effects upon the community.

The following sampling technique⁴ was utilized. With the aid of the map of the community, the town area was sectioned off into sixteen fields—one each for the sixteen interviewers. The instructor in the course also undertook his share of interviewing. Routes to be followed and houses to be visited were determined by approaching every other house on one side (determined by chance) of every street. This survey did not extend outside the town. Because houses which were not set on recognized streets were lost to the study, an obvious limitation in the sampling procedure resulted.

One full day was spent in obtaining interviews. The sixteen interviewers knocked on 338 doors. Seventy-five of these did not open. Eleven respondents were "too busy to bother" and appeared to have legitimate reasons within the house for being unable to spare the time to an interviewer. Twenty persons refused to answer

and, in some cases, shut the door in the interviewer's face. It is interesting to note that most of the refusals occurred in the afternoon, after the townspeople became aware of the presence of the survey group. This study is based on 232 responses out of a potential 338, or roughly two-thirds of the approached sample. Because this study was made during the hours that men are usually at work, most of the respondents were women.

The respondents were sorted out into the five classes reported in the Elmtown study, using the information that had been gathered on each respondent in the first section of the interview guide. The resulting distribution of the author's sample can be compared with the Hollingshead distribution of the 535 families of the adolescents studied in Elmtown.

DATA OBTAINED IN SURVEY

The distribution obtained by the author in this survey sample (Table 1) differs considerably from the original Hollingshead distribution by showing overloads in Classes II and III and significant losses in numbers in Classes IV and V. Several reasons may explain these discrepancies. Most of the data for classification purposes came from a very brief interview with a respondent who may well have slanted his information upwards. The interviewing was restricted to the town proper and to recognized streets in the town during the working hours of the day. Hence, no analysis of intraclass responses is attempted with these data, although this had been one of

⁴ George Bargh assisted in developing and applying the sampling technique.

the intentions in the plan of the study.

Of the 232 individuals interviewed, 152 (66 per cent) said they knew of, or had heard of, the study. Of those who were cognizant of the investigation, 79 (34 per cent) said they were aware the study was going on during its active stage, and 39 (17 per cent) reported a

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF ELMTOWN FAMILIES THROUGHOUT THE FIVE CLASSES AS REPORTED BY HOLLINGSHEAD AND AS NOTED AMONG THE RESPONDENTS IN KVARACEUS SURVEY

CLASS	PER CENT OF FAMILIES	
	Hollingshead Sample (535 Families)	Kvaraceus Sample (232 Families)
I (Upper).....	1	1
II (Upper-middle).....	5	10
III (Middle).....	24	54
IV (Upper-lower).....	44	32
V (Lower).....	26	2
Total.....	100	99

direct contact with Hollingshead or his colleagues. However, only 65 of the respondents (28 per cent) indicated that they had actually read the report. In view of the pervasive and somewhat volatile nature of the study, consciousness of the research project and its findings had percolated down through the community to some extent. Still, awareness of the project and its detailed findings was hardly universal and was, at the same time, heavily dependent upon hearsay and second-hand sources.

Those who claimed to have read the Elmtown report were asked to indi-

cate the number of classes that they thought made up the social structure of the community. In spite of the overwhelming evidence piled up indicating the existence of five classes, almost half of the readers admitted to the existence of only three. Thirteen respondents indicated the presence of five classes; five stated there were four; three stated there were only two; and two respondents denied the existence of more than one class in their community. If these respondents read the report, either they were not won over by the data, or the democratic ideal dominated a rational and scientific point of view.

Fifty-one of the sixty-five readers of the Hollingshead report were willing to indicate the class in which they thought they found their own membership; fourteen resisted either the question or the idea of multiple classes. Five individuals stated they came from Class II; 41 of the readers (80 per cent) placed themselves safely in Class III; four indicated they belonged in Class IV; and one individual relegated himself (correctly) to Class V. There was a surprisingly high degree of agreement between the interviewers' classification and the respondents' answers to this question. However, a common "bias error" in the classification processes is suspected in both situations.

CATALOGUING AND CLASSIFYING RESPONDENTS' COMMENTS

Perhaps the best source of community reaction to the study is found in the comments made spontaneously

or to an open-end question, just before the interview was terminated, asking the respondent if there were any further thoughts regarding the study that he would like to register. A miscellany of 256 comments was obtained in this fashion.

These comments were first catalogued as positive or negative. If the comment suggested that the study was well conceived, well executed, purposeful, accurate, rewarding, fruitful, and managed by sincere and able people, it was considered a positive comment. If, on the other hand, the comment denied the values of the study in its aims or results, questioned the accuracy of the data, indicated injury to the community or various groups in the community, or attacked the person of the investigator, it was considered a negative comment. Only 9 per cent of the comments fell in the positive category, whereas 89 per cent, or the large bulk of all the comments, fell in the negative group. Two per cent of the items defied this type of classification.

Most of the respondents' observations lent themselves to more specific cataloguing and fell into several main types. These classifications are given, with illustrative verbatim comments of the respondents.

COMMENTS ATTACKING PERSON OF THE INVESTIGATOR

Hollingshead didn't talk with the right people.

Hollingshead tried to commercialize the study.

This man wrote the book for selfish reasons. Professors do not make enough money to

keep themselves, so they have to supplement their income some way.

COMMENTS ATTACKING VALIDITY OR RELIABILITY OF THE STUDY

The facts were misrepresented; the information should have been kept for research only.

Malcontents furnished evidence through gossip they heard.

Boys got together and made up stories about sex.

Placed people in wrong classes.

People told him bunk to lead him on.

True, but exaggerated, misrepresented, and overemphasized.

Some people resented questions and told any story.

Unfair to people.

Shouldn't have interviewed some people.

Statistical reports on [one religious group] false—minister is preparing retaliation statement.

Unfair neighborhood groupings.

People who shouldn't get a black eye did; some who talked about others were really worse than those they talked about.

Most people are pretty much alike; always a few who think they are better, but [most people are] very nice; socially, this town is wonderful.

COMMENTS INDICATING ONLY NEGATIVE OR DESTRUCTIVE VALUES

[The study] made trouble in [social] classes.

People suffer deep and lasting hurt.

Study is useless.

Enough to make one communistic.

[The study] hurt people's feelings, made people angry.

Nothing was done to remedy faults.

[The study] caused class consciousness that did not exist before.

[The study was] derogatory to the town as such, created rumors, rated churches against each other, abused confidences.

[The study] has been a parlor game to read and identify.

Some sections of the book should be deleted.

Status of churches was shaken.
 The study is unnecessary and negativistic.
 It affected property values [downwards].
 Study is too strong.
 Children now resent tests.
 It may bring up racial difficulties.
 Strong prejudices in Elmtown after this study.
 Should have helped to break down segregation but didn't.
 I thought the study should have been more educational.
 The study was a waste of time.
 The town takes no cognizance of the study.
 The study took a lot of school time.
 No one liked it, [it is a] very disgusting book.
 I have lived here all my life and know everything anyway, therefore, I think the whole thing was silly from the start.
 I don't know what the book was supposed to accomplish.

POSITIVE COMMENTS AND COMMENTS INDICATING CONSTRUCTIVE OUTCOME

[The study] brought out facts not known to the public.
 Hollingshead is a nice person.
 Educational standards now being raised.
 Hollingshead was well accepted.
 I have an open mind on the subject.
 The schools were improved.
 The youngsters approved of the study.
 The people are now getting the idea that it is a study of a typical town.
 It brought things out into the open.
 It showed up lack of opportunities for high-school graduates.
 The book is good.
 [The study reported] the plain truth, and the plain truth hurts.

On the basis of the Elmtown field trip, the following observations can be made.

1. Only a rather small group of Elmtowners reported that they had read the Hollingshead report. How-

ever, two-thirds of the sample did indicate an awareness of the study, but they either were entirely dependent upon hearsay or secondary sources for their information or had become acquainted with the study through brief contact with the research staff.

2. The large bulk of the respondents, almost 90 per cent, tended to deny or minimize the findings of the study and the value of the research and to reject the individual connected with the study. The respondents generally felt that the study "hurt many persons" and did little or no good.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE SURVEY

A number of noteworthy implications can be drawn from this interviewing experience and from these observations. A community cannot participate or co-operate in such a study as was conducted by the Committee on Human Development without itself undergoing considerable change in, and through, the research process. The direction of community change may be such as to freeze and preserve the present social structure and to develop animosities and retaliatory attitudes within and between various status groups, or the direction of change may be toward opening up more and better avenues for social mobility. What happens to the community after the data have been gathered and the research report has been presented should be of concern both to the com-

munity and, especially, to the researchers who have used the community as a laboratory.

There was a definite feeling noted among the respondents in the Elmtown survey that the research results and findings were not in line with the original aims and objectives of the research project. The community felt it had been somehow misled as to the exact scope and purpose of a research project in general and the Elmtown project in particular.

Plans for research of the type carried on in Elmtown should always include preparations for the use of the most effective means of communication after the study has been completed and the research findings made available, so that all members of the community can have access to the information and put it to good use for personal and social betterment. The researcher ought not to abandon the community to its own inadequacies in coping with the implications of a rather complicated and highly charged report.

One of the difficulties in communicating the aims and results of sociological research to the community members is to be found in the specialized vocabulary of the researcher. Terms such as "class," "social status," "upper-middle class," and "lower-middle class," are highly colored and fused to many emotional concomitants. Some attention ought to be given to this problem so that the report may be rendered and received in more objective fashion. There is consider-

able evidence that the terminology met by the layman in the Elmtown report interfered with effective communication.

It is doubtful whether added knowledge, in itself, can aid in breaking down the obstacles to vertical mobility or remove some of the unfair practices that result from social structuring in the modern American community. The Elmtown interviewing suggests that, in many cases, increased knowledge of the true situation was followed by an increase in conflicting attitudes within, and between members of, various status groups.

Because of the difficulties experienced in Elmtown owing to the personalizing attitudes of community members belonging to various status groups, and because of our ignorance as to the most effective means of communication, it may be that some communities must be sacrificed on the altar of scientific research. However, in a world pock-marked by bombed-out cities, such sacrifice may not be of great moment. This survey points out sharply that "Homo Americanus" (Middle Western variety) would remain happier with the unruffled ideal of a classless society or, at worst, a three-class society and that he prefers to deny the unpleasant and unsightly realities suggested by scientific and systematic research. This ostrich-like attitude, in itself, may constitute the real threat to improvement in the democratic way of life.

HOW CAN CONVENTIONS BE MADE MORE FRUITFUL?

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THE GENERAL PROBLEM

ATTENDING CONVENTIONS and conferences of one kind or another is a frequent experience of educators. We have all enjoyed meeting old friends at such affairs and sharing with them recent professional and personal experiences. We have, no doubt, also complained after such affairs that, except for the enjoyable social activities and interpersonal contacts in the hallways, eating places, and in after-meeting bull sessions, the meeting activities were not particularly fruitful. We usually agree that the meetings are stiff and dull, the chairs hard and uncomfortable, and the benefits derived from the formal sessions far less than we had hoped for.

Is it not time that we did something about making the organized meetings approximate our expectancies in terms of worth-whileness and productivity? The following material delineates a session at a state convention with the purpose of (1) analyzing the factors that contributed to a sense of dissatisfaction with these events and (2) suggesting possible procedures to ameliorate the situation.

A SPECIFIC EXAMPLE OF THE PROBLEM

The occasion was a parent-teacher section meeting at a state education association convention. The meeting ran from 10:15 to 11:45 A.M. There was an official chairman of the gathering, as well as a moderator and a panel of four persons: a representative from business, a representative of a national organization working on behalf of the public schools, a school administrator, and the vice-chairman of the state parent-teacher body. The topic was "Assessing Our Schools." About forty-five teachers, parents, and school administrators made up the group in the room. The seats were placed row-on-row, and the panel and the moderator sat on a small platform.

The chairman opened the meeting, and then each panel member presented a fifteen-minute address in which he offered his ideas on the topic. After all the panel members had spoken, the moderator felt impelled to pick up certain points that struck his fancy—the matter of federal aid to education, the difficulties of communication between individuals and groups, and the question of elective or appointive school

boards. After the moderator had given his views, partly to stimulate discussion and partly to get his own feelings off his chest, a member of the audience brought up the question of politics in education, maintaining that politics was a menace to the whole cause of good public education. The moderator felt he had been misunderstood and attempted to clarify his point by suggesting that it all depended on what one meant by "politics" and on who was using the term.

Another member of the audience introduced the problem of tenure for school administrators. He made a strong plea for giving more than a one-year contract to the chief officer of an educational system in order that the official might do a more effective job. The representative from business on the panel took up the cudgels at this point and reminded everyone that he and his colleagues in industry had no contract or tenure with their firms. He went on to emphasize that he saw no valid reason for giving tenure to a school administrator. Another panel member chimed in to support him on this. Considerable discussion then took place, in which members of the audience, the moderator, and the businessman participated heatedly.

While time sped along, another speaker from the floor returned to the question of an elected versus an appointed school board, and a parent complained of the lack of co-operation received by the parent-teachers' association from the local school board and the superintendent of schools. She was advised to keep up her courage.

About five minutes before the meeting was to be adjourned, the moderator asked each panel member to comment on the issues that had been raised. The businessman took this opportunity to restate his disinterest in giving tenure to school administrators. The school administrator made a plea for a more functional and forward-looking method of school budgeting. The moderator recognized one more speaker from the floor. He was a venerable school man who said he had just one thing he would like to leave with the gathering. "No matter how difficult things seem," he urged, "don't get discouraged but keep on trying!" The moderator suggested that on that note the meeting be adjourned.

SOME BASES FOR THE PROBLEM

This observer was impressed by two things about the meeting. One was the helter-skelter, nondirectional nature of the discussion. The other was the considerable amount of time and effort put into the session, not only by the chairman, moderator, and panel members, but by the audience, with limited returns from the investment of time and effort. The persons in the room spent approximately an hour and a half in the session—about sixty-seven and a half man-hours of time. It is fair to assume that a minimum of two and a half man-hours of effort and time had gone into the planning and preparation for the session. About seventy man-hours of work had been expended.

Were the fruits of the investment of time and effort as positive and as great

as they should have been? I suggest they were not. This lack of adequate return on the investment of time and effort was the result of several factors.

The pre-planning for the session was either inadequate or entirely lacking. The panel members obviously were not clear about their responsibilities. They, like many panel discussants, envisaged themselves as guest speakers and gave short, formal addresses. They did not, it seemed, confer together as a panel before the session to insure collaboration as a team, attacking the topic from different points of view. The moderator appeared unclear about his function and apparently lacked skill in fulfilling his role. The platform placement of the panel and the row-on-row seating arrangement of the people who attended the meeting changed the group into an audience listening to speeches rather than participants in a discussion. The discussion was clearly nondirectional and led to a sense of frustration in some of those present. As a result of the frustration, considerable heat but little light was generated in the discussion. Neither clarification of ideas nor suggestions of promising possible courses of action came out of the session.

But, someone might say, the only purpose of the gathering was to get people thinking. There was some evidence that the people did not need to be stimulated to think about these issues, that they already were deeply ego-involved in them. But wasn't the object of the meeting really to get some problems out into the open? In part, this is true. But why do we want

to get problems out into the open? In order, I suggest, to analyze them in co-operation with our peers so that we may begin to see some direction and action possibilities for our next moves.

A FEW SUGGESTED REMEDIES

What might have been done to insure that this session would have resulted in a larger return on the investment of human time and energy?

There ought to have been at least one pre-planning session by the moderator and his panel either in face-to-face discussion or by telephone and letter. Each member would thus have obtained a little clearer notion about his job at the meeting and how best he could fulfil it. The panel members ought to have been briefed on their responsibility for stimulating discussion and not monopolizing it. Each panel member might have been allotted five minutes in which to say his piece or the panel could have been conducted as an informal exchange of views, guided by the moderator, to stimulate participation from the floor. The gathering might have been subdivided, after the topic and its ramifications had been opened up in the first twenty minutes, into three groups of fifteen, each under a competent discussion leader. On the other hand, the whole group might have remained as a unit, provided (1) the moderator was an able discussion leader, rather than just a plain needler, and (2) the people present had been seated face to face rather than face to back.

If groups of fifteen had been used, they might have dispersed to near-by

empty rooms (there were plenty available) and have dug into the problems for about forty-five minutes. Before they moved into the subgroups, the moderator should have made clear that their immediate job was to identify two or three pressing issues and to begin to develop suggested action possibilities for clarifying and resolving them. The subgroups could have reconvened in a general meeting to hear a reporter from each group give a précis of the group's thinking and recommendations.

A frequent weak link in a conference structure is the discussion leader. There seems to be a widely accepted myth that anyone with a little common sense can lead a discussion and that the individual who knows most about the discussion topic is naturally the best leader. Neither item of faith appears to have much basis in fact. The art of competently guiding a discussion group demands skills that must be learned and cultivated. A few of these skills include the ability to identify semantic differences rapidly, the ability to be flexible and sensitive to group needs, the ability to refrain from riding one's "pet peeves" or hobbies, the ability to keep the discussants to the issue without browbeating them, and the ability to keep interpersonal friction at a minimum. The extent to which a discussion leader is competent in exercising these and other concomitant skills determines the extent to which a discussion group is productive. Hence, discussion leaders should be selected with great care

and reminded, in a pre-convention briefing meeting, of their responsibilities for the success of a group and of the ways in which those responsibilities may be discharged.

The primary chore, perhaps, of a discussion leader is to structure the situation and problem for the discussants as clearly as possible. This frequently involves taking a quick census of the group—by having discussants tell what they perceive the issues and sub-issues to be—to find out what their views are. The discussion leader's job after the census is to organize the divergent points of view of the same problem into one or two issues that are meaningful to all who are present. This means that the leader must help the group to define one or two issues upon which they wish to concentrate. Once these issues have been pinpointed, the subsequent task of the leader is to insure that the group understands its job as being (1) to bring out ideas that clarify the problems under discussion and (2) to make recommendations entailing specific action possibilities, either for themselves or for other agencies to follow, for the resolving of the problems.

If a little more care were taken in pre-planning conferences, in uncovering the latent needs and problems of the delegates, in orienting the discussion leaders to their task, and in structuring discussions as problem-solving sessions, greater productivity would result and more satisfaction would accrue to all who participate in conferences.

STABILITY OF HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS' INTERESTS IN SCIENCE AND IN MATHEMATICS

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INTRODUCTION

CONFLICTING VIEWPOINTS concerning the major purposes of the free public high school have been held ever since it became an established part of the program of American education. The first of these viewpoints is that the chief purpose of the high school is to provide the student with a general education, one which will start him on the way to becoming a more effective citizen. The second viewpoint is that the high school's major responsibility is to train the student for his future occupation. The proponents of the latter viewpoint have become increasingly vocal during the past few years, especially with respect to training students for future occupations in the fields of science and of mathematics.

The great shortage of scientists and engineers has convinced many persons that the high school must provide a strong academic program of science and mathematics for students who are talented in such lines. This conviction

has received considerable support as a result of talent searches in science, industry-sponsored scholarships in science, and the fact that many of those with this conviction have been able to publicize it effectively.

Those defending the first viewpoint are not in complete discord with those defending the latter viewpoint, but they prefer to place emphasis on general education as the chief objective. The defenders of the first viewpoint also express doubt that the many factors involved in talent in science or in mathematics can be measured accurately enough to justify advising high-school students to major in science or mathematics.

Of the many factors involved in talent in science or in mathematics, one that has been mentioned frequently is interest in those areas. Apparently, students who are talented in science or in other areas are believed to show interest in these areas of talent early in life.

A recent publication dealing with

the education of talented youth makes certain implications concerning the factor of interest as it is related to talent. In discussing the selection of youth whose talents may be brought out to advantage by educating them in specialized high schools, the following statements are made:

The school is permitted to develop such standards of admission . . . as are in keeping with the school's purpose. . . . While such a selection factor has no necessary relation to general ability, it does take advantage of such correlation as exists between and among traits. Early identification of a *strong interest* or aptitude produces a "halo effect." It often serves as a motivation for learnings in related fields and stimulates generalized achievements.¹

In another section of the same publication there are the following statements that imply the relationship between interest in science and talent in science:

In 1942, a nation-wide search for science talent among the Seniors of the secondary schools of the United States was initiated. . . .

It is a broad-scale operation intended to stimulate *interest* in science on the part of secondary-school students.²

The writers do not wish to question either (1) the desirability of having specialized high schools, as suggested in the first citation, or (2) the relationship between interest in science and talent in science, as suggested in both

citations. However, if it is the purpose of any high school to provide special education for students with special talents, then it becomes obvious that the identification of such talent should be made as soon as the student enters high school. If interest is a factor in talent, then one can assume defensibly that the interest should be identified early and that it would have a high degree of stability over the high-school period during which the student is trained.

RELATED PRIOR STUDIES

The high degree of stability just mentioned is not evidenced satisfactorily by the meager research that has been done. Of the research studies, two by Zim and one by Crumrine seem to be most pertinent to this discussion.

As one of the techniques in the first of these studies, Zim prepared a questionnaire that "covered a range of activities in which young adolescents engage and indicated the type of science interests they express." The data obtained from responses by 815 pupils in Grades VII through X indicated the following:

1 Adolescents show distinct preferences in the areas of science they have studied and would like to study. . . .

3. There is a relationship between the science preferred in school and the choice of a scientific vocation, for a majority of boys and for about 25 per cent of the girls.³

¹ Morris Meister, "A High School of Science for the Gifted Child," *The Gifted Child*, p. 215. Edited by Paul Witty for the American Association for Gifted Children. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1951. [Italics ours.]

² Watson Davis, "Search for Talent in Science," *ibid.*, p. 236. [Italics ours.]

³ Herbert S. Zim, *Science Interests and Activities of Adolescents*. New York: Ethical Culture Schools, 1940.

In his second study, Zim sent questionnaires—

to scientists on the University of Illinois faculty—to men having professional rank engaged in full-time research and teaching in sciences. A second sample of 82 research assistants and instructors in science was added to give a better age distribution. A total of 559 replies were received. . . . Questions were phrased so that any kinds of interest, activities, collections, vocational choices, etc., could be expressed.⁴

Zim's data show that 7 per cent of the respondents indicated the "age of first interest in science" at the early elementary-school level; 37 per cent at the later elementary-school level; 33 per cent at the high-school level; and the rest at a later period. The data indicate also that the "age at which present vocation was first chosen" was for 3 per cent, 4–6 years; for 8 per cent, 6–8 years; for 15 per cent, 8–10 years; for 22 per cent, 10–12 years; for 33 per cent, 12–14 years; and for 46 per cent, 14–16 years.⁵

However, these studies fail to indicate the following:

1. The extent to which a man's employment may suggest to him the appearance of an early interest in areas related to that employment.

2. The pattern of interests of persons who *did not* become members of the science facul-

ty of the University of Illinois. Among these persons would be included a great number of scientific and technical personnel who might be classified as nonprofessionals. The bulk of scientific workers fall into this category.

3. The extent to which greater interests in other areas might have been present in those early years.

4. The extent of stability of interests over the high-school period.

Crumrine's study, although not centered on science and mathematics, does provide evidence related to the topic of this investigation. In his study he administered the Kuder Preference Record, Form BB, to 240 high-school students at the ninth-grade level and again to these same students after they had completed at least three years of high school. He then compared the scores they made at the two levels. His findings were as follows:

1. In only 52 per cent of the cases was the individual's area of highest interest at Grade IX still the area of highest interest at Grade XII; the area of second-highest interest remained second highest in only 34 per cent of the cases; and the area of third-highest interest remained third highest in 28 per cent of the cases.

2. It would seem undesirable to counsel students at the ninth-grade level on the assumption that the rankings of the individual areas of interest remain constant throughout high school.⁶

But Crumrine's study leaves unanswered a major question related to the problem of this study. What about the specific areas of science and mathematics? Are there areas in which in-

⁴ Herbert S. Zim, "Early Interests and Activities of American Scientists," p. 47. Unpublished Report presented at the Convention of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in Philadelphia, December 27–31, 1951, and at the Convention of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching in Chicago, February 14–16, 1952.

⁵ Certain discrepancies in total per cent are due to methods of computation.

⁶ William M. Crumrine, "An Investigation of the Stability of Interests of High-School Students." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Michigan, 1949.

terests *do* remain stable over the high-school period? If so, then insofar as interest is predictive of talent, the scores obtained on interest tests at the ninth-grade level may well be used for selecting students for early specialized training in science or mathematics.

Hence, in order to furnish further evidence to show whether interest in science or in mathematics is a factor

both the ninth- and twelfth-grade levels. The vertical ordinate shows the ranks these areas received at the ninth-grade level; the horizontal ordinate, the ranks at the twelfth-grade level. Table 1 contains these data for interest in science; Table 2, for interest in mathematics. Both tables have been shortened from the original for inclusion here.

TABLE 1*

SCATTER TABLE OF RANKS OF INTEREST IN SCIENCE AT GRADES IX AND XII

RANK AT GRADE IX	RANK AT GRADE XII																		To- tal
	1	1.5	2	2.5	3	3.5	4	4.5	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5	8	8.5	9		
1.....	13	5	1	2	5	1	2	29	
1.5.....	1	1	
2.....	3	1	2	5	8	1	4	2	1	1	28	
2.5.....	
3.....	4	1	8	1	4	2	2	2	1	1	2	28	
Total	28	3	24	3	23	4	32	4	23	2	22	1	27	2	16	1	25	240	

* This table has been shortened for inclusion with the text. In the original table on which this study was partially based, both vertical and horizontal ordinates extended from 1 to 9. The original totals are given here.

in talent in these respective areas, it was decided to determine whether the interests of high-school students in these fields of study are sufficiently stable over the high-school period to be used as a basis for guidance and counseling.

METHODS EMPLOYED

It was decided to use the data obtained by Crumrine in his study to investigate specifically the stability of interest in science and interest in mathematics. The first step was to prepare scatter tables for the ranks of the scores in interest received by the students in these two areas of study at

The data indicate that the ranks of the raw scores obtained at the ninth-grade level for interest in science and those obtained at the twelfth-grade level are not the same. Of twenty-nine students whose interest ranked highest in science on the Kuder Preference Record, Form BB, in Grade IX, only thirteen had science as the highest-ranking area of interest in Grade XII. In the case of five of these students, science ranked second as an area of interest in Grade XII; in the case of one, it ranked midway between second and third; in the case of two, it ranked third; in the case of five, it ranked fourth; in the case of one, it ranked

midway between fourth and fifth; and in the case of two, it ranked sixth. Similar shifts were found when interest in science held ranks other than first at the ninth-grade level.

In addition, the data indicate findings for the field of mathematics similar to those for the field of science. To illustrate, of twenty-two students whose highest-ranking area of interest at Grade IX was mathematics, nine

the shifts in rankings of interest in science and of interest in mathematics are similar to the shifts for all the areas of interest measured by the Kuder Preference Record, Form BB, as determined by Crumrine.

The next step was to compute from the raw scores obtained in interest in science and those in mathematics the number of cases in which the raw scores for the interest areas increased

TABLE 2*

SCATTER TABLE OF RANKS OF INTEREST IN MATHEMATICS AT GRADES IX AND XII

RANK AT GRADE IX	RANK AT GRADE XII																	TO- TAL
	1	1.5	2	2.5	3	3.5	4	4.5	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5	8	8.5	9	
1.....	9	5	1	3	1	2	1				22
1.5.....			1							1						1
2.....	6	7	1	4	3	3										24
2.5.....																		
3.....	1	1	4	1	4	1	3	2	1	1	3	4			26
Total	22	1	24	7	21	7	29	22	2	28	4	28	4	24	1	16	240

* This table has been shortened for inclusion with the text. In the original table on which this study was partially based, both vertical and horizontal ordinates extended from 1 to 9. The original totals are given here.

still had mathematics as the highest-ranking area of interest at Grade XII. In the case of five, it became the second-ranking area of interest; in the case of three, the fourth-ranking area; in the case of one, the fifth; in the case of two, the sixth; and in the case of one, the seventh.

Further, of fifteen students whose lowest-ranking area of interest at the ninth-grade level was mathematics (data not included in Table 2), only three still ranked it the lowest at the twelfth-grade level; in the case of one student, it became the highest-ranking area of interest.

Tables 1 and 2 indicate clearly that

between Grades IX and XII, the number of cases in which they decreased, and the number of cases in which they remained the same.

With respect to direction of change in raw scores for science interests, the raw scores of 112 students increased, while those of 115 decreased, and those of 13 remained the same. With respect to direction of change in raw scores for mathematics interests, the scores of 111 students increased, while those of 125 decreased, and those of 4 remained the same. These data indicate clearly that the raw scores obtained on the science and the mathematics sections of the Kuder Prefer-

ence Record, Form BB, do not remain the same between Grades IX and XII. Whether the shifts in scores were great enough to cause shifts in the rankings of the areas of interest was uncertain. Thus, it was decided to repeat the previous computations, using the ranks of the scores instead of the raw scores.

TABLE 3

COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION AND OF ALIENATION BETWEEN RAW SCORES AND RANKS OF THESE RAW SCORES ON AREAS OF INTEREST IN SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS OBTAINED AT NINTH- AND TWELFTH-GRADE LEVELS

Area of Interest	r for Raw Scores	$\sqrt{1-r^2}$ for Raw Scores	r for Ranks of Raw Scores	$\sqrt{1-r^2}$ for Ranks of Raw Scores
Science.....	.646	.75	.65	.76
Mathematics.	.604	.71	.588	.81

With respect to direction of change of rank of interest in mathematics, the rank of interest in mathematics increased in eighty-three students, decreased in ninety-four, and remained the same in sixty-three. These data also indicate that, with respect to rank of interest, only about one-fourth of the students show stability.

In order to determine the extent to which it might be possible to predict the stability of interest in science and interest in mathematics on the basis of scores obtained at the ninth-grade level, it was decided to compute coefficients of correlation and of alienation between the raw scores obtained at the ninth- and twelfth-grade levels,

and between the ranks of the same scores (Table 3). The data in Table 3 indicate that the possibilities for predicting a person's score or rank in interest in science or in mathematics at the twelfth-grade level from the score or rank received at the ninth-grade level are somewhat dubious. The coefficients of alienation for all four possible predictions range from .71 to .81.

IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY

Insofar as the techniques employed in this study may be valid and the conclusions defensible, the following implications seem reasonable:

1. The data indicate that, to a great extent, if interest in science or interest in mathematics ranks high in Grade IX, it is still likely to rank high in Grade XII. However, one is not justified in assuming that it will remain in the same rank. Students who are guided into science or into mathematics at Grade IX, or into curriculums emphasizing science or mathematics, may find themselves more interested in music, social science, or some other area of study at Grade XII. The guidance, therefore, may be chiefly "misguidance."

2. Over-all predictability is not high insofar as scores or ranks at Grade IX are related to those at Grade XII. Coefficients of alienation are greater than coefficients of correlation.

3. This study fails to substantiate claims that interest is likely to be a reliable predictor of talent in individuals.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON GUIDANCE

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THE FOLLOWING REFERENCES represent a selection from the many that appeared in the latter half of 1951 and the first half of 1952. The literature of guidance reflects the general national anxiety over the adequacy and the optimum utilization of the country's manpower, and several writings are chosen for this year's article because they especially present this challenge to guidance. The items selected have been organized as in preceding years, namely, under "Distribution," "Adjustment," and "Distribution and Adjustment."

DISTRIBUTION

565. ANDREW, DEAN C. "Predicting College Success of Non-High-School Graduates," *School Review*, LX (March, 1952), 151-56.

Grade-point averages in the first quarter of college predicted later success with a correlation coefficient of .784.

566. BENNETT, GEORGE K.; SEASHORE, HAROLD G.; and WESMAN, ALEXANDER G. "Aptitude Testing: Does It 'Prove Out' in Counseling Practice?" *Occupations*, XXX (May, 1952), 584-93.

A follow-up of subjects who were tested with the Differential Aptitude Tests in 1947 while they were high-school Juniors and Seniors. Gives group average profiles of those who are now in various college curriculums or in several categories of employment.

567. BLUM, MILTON L., and BALINSKY, BENJAMIN. *Counseling and Psychology*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951. Pp. xx+586.

A textbook on vocational counseling, about half of which is devoted to psychological tests and their bearing on vocational selection.

568. COHEN, ALBERT. "A Minimal Library on Occupational Information for Counselors," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 167-79.

A thoughtfully prepared list, classified and appropriately annotated.

569. DiMICHAEL, SALVATORE G. "Interest-Inventory Results during the Counseling Interview," *Occupations*, XXX (November, 1951), 93-97.

Points out some of the pitfalls in interpretation of interest-inventory results and makes practical suggestions.

570. GREENLEAF, WALTER J. *Occupations—A Basic Course for Counselors*. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 247, Occupational Information and Guidance Series No. 16. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1951. Pp. vi+194.

Primarily a source booklet written for the training of counselors in occupations at the college level, this publication is an excellent reference for all counselors. An extensive appendix lists occupational materials.

571. *Human Resources: The Needs and the Supply*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1951. Pp. viii+64.
- Lectures by Dael L. Wolfe, Dwight Chapman, Ben Moreell, Henry Chauncey, and M. H. Trytten, depicting present status and trends, with emphasis primarily on the situation among professional workers.
572. "The Human Resources of the U.S.," *Scientific American*, CLXXXV (September, 1951), 28-109.
- A series of articles by Frank Notestein, Ewan Clague, Dael Wolfe, Karl T. Compton, M. H. Trytten, Alan Gregg, Arthur Flemming, and George D. Stoddard report significant facts concerning our population, labor force, and the problems of obtaining adequate numbers of specialists in medicine, engineering, and science. Graphic aids are advantageously used.
573. JAFFE, ABRAM J., and STEWART, CHARLES D. *Manpower Resources and Utilization*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1951. Pp. xii+532.
- Presents and interprets extensive statistics mainly from the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of the Census, to illuminate the occupational structure and trends. The many factors which determine the size, composition, and utilization of the labor force are depicted.
574. JAGER, HARRY A. "Recruiting: A Counselor's Quandary," *Occupations*, XXX (May, 1952), 601-3.
- Present-day programs of recruiting for engineering, nursing, teaching in elementary schools, and other fields have prompted the author to present his point of view on how the counselor should regard such pressures.
575. KAPLAN, DAVID L. "Occupational Trends during the Last Decade," *Occupations*, XXX (January, 1952), 248-51.
- Presents data depicting the shifts that occurred among major groups of workers.
576. MALLINSON, GEORGE G., and CRUMRINE, WILLIAM M. "An Investigation of the Stability of Interests of High-School Students," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (January, 1952), 369-83.
- With the Kuder Preference Record the interests of 250 pupils were measured in Grade IX and again in Grade XII, and comparisons were drawn. "Students may be counseled reliably on the basis of interest at the ninth grade provided that the two or three highest areas of interest and the two or three lowest areas of interest are considered in such counseling."
577. *Occupational Outlook Handbook: Employment Information on Major Occupations for Use in Guidance*. Bulletin No. 998 (Revision of Bulletin 940). Prepared by United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, in co-operation with Veterans Administration. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1951. Pp. xvi+574.
- This revision covers 433 occupations compared with 288 in the earlier volume. The *Handbook* is not limited to future prospects but includes extensive descriptions of jobs and information on training requirements, working conditions, etc. This outstanding work of reference has many charts for the presentation of trends and present status. Pictures are extensively used.
578. PIERSON, GEORGE A., and JEX, FRANK B. "Using the Cooperative General Achievement Tests To Predict Success in Engineering," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XI (Autumn, 1951), 397-402.
- Finds "that the Cooperative General Achievement Tests are almost as efficient in predicting first-year marks in engineering as the Pre-engineering Inventory." Sheds light on other predictive measures as well.
579. ROSS, MAURICE J. "Significant Concepts of Occupational Information,"

Occupations, XXX (February, 1952), 323-26.

Reports a study in which juries of experts were asked to designate concepts of occupational information as "essential," "desirable," or "ineffectual" for high-school pupils to hold.

580. SANTAVICCA, G. G. "What Homeroom Teachers Should Know," *Occupations*, XXX (February, 1952), 351-55.

Before juries of experts there were placed 268 concepts of distributive guidance. College teachers of guidance courses, more than secondary-school counselors, felt that home-room teachers should possess the concepts.

581. *Scholarships and Fellowships Available at Institutions of Higher Education*. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Bulletin 1951, No. 16. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1951. Pp. viii+248.

A valuable aid in advisement for higher education.

582. SCHULTZ, IRWIN J.; LEVINE, ABRAHAM S.; and BLOOM, WALLACE. "Before the Wild, Blue Yonder," *Occupations*, XXX (December, 1951), 182-87.

Divided into two sections. Schultz and Levine cover "Counseling in the Classification Program for Air Force Men." Bloom describes "Career Counseling for Air Force Officers." The entire article deals with the individual counseling used in conjunction with the Airman Classification Battery as a basis for assignment of personnel.

583. SHARTLE, CARROLL L. *Occupational Information: Its Development and Application*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952 (second edition). Pp. xiv+426.

A well-known work extensively revised and brought up to date. Reflects a thorough acquaintance with the activities of the several agencies of the federal government which are developing and disseminating occupational information.

584. STRONG, EDWARD K., JR. "Interest Scores While in College of Occupations Engaged in 20 Years Later," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XI (Autumn, 1951), 335-48.

The major finding of this twenty-year follow-up study is that "occupational interest scores of 345 college students agree with the occupation engaged in twenty years later to the extent of 86 per cent of the possible maximum."

585. STRONG, EDWARD K., JR. "Nineteen-Year Followup of Engineer Interests," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 65-74.

Engineering interests, indicated by the Strong Vocational Interest Test in the Freshman year of college, proved to be very stable, and their possession was permanent.

586. *Woman at Work: The Autobiography of Mary Anderson, as Told to Mary N. Winslow*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1951. Pp. xii+266.

A volume included in this list because of the contribution it can make to the counselor's orientation in the recent history of woman's vocational role. Miss Anderson's career, from Swedish immigrant girl in domestic service to twenty-five years as director of the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, encompasses a period of rapid evolution in vocational life.

ADJUSTMENT¹

587. DETJEN, ERVIN WINFRED, and DETJEN, MARY FORD. *Elementary School Guidance*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xii+266.

A work designed to help teachers meet practical problems of maladjustment. Following several chapters on the study of

¹ See also Item 256 (Noble and Lund), Item 257 (Davidoff and Noetzel), and Item 260 (Powers and Witmer) in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1952, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

pupils, the balance of the book is devoted to chapters on meeting various types of problems, typical titles being "Heeding the Attention Seeker," "Understanding the Shy, Withdrawing Child," "Helping the Daydreamer."

588. GLUECK, SHELDON and ELEANOR. *Delinquents in the Making*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. x+214.

An interpretation, for the general reader, of the extensive investigation reported in 1950 under the title *Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency*.

589. GUSTAD, JOHN W. "Factors Associated with Social Behavior and Adjustment: A Review of the Literature," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XII (Spring, 1952), 3-19.

The review pertains to the social adjustment of college students, covering especially the influence of extra-curriculum participation, home factors, socioeconomic level, and vocational interests. Bibliography of 44 items.

590. KAHN, ALFRED J. *Police and Children: A Study of the Juvenile Aid Bureau of the New York City Police Department*. New York: Citizens' Committee on Children of New York City, Inc. (1407 Broadway), 1951. Pp. 84.

Describes the services of a special branch of the police in prevention of juvenile delinquency.

591. KAPLAN, LOUIS, and BARON, DENNIS. *Mental Hygiene and Life*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. xiv+422.

A general treatment of the field of mental hygiene, notable for the inclusion of many practical examples from life-situations.

592. KRATHWOHL, WILLIAM C. "Specificity of Over- and Under-Achievement in College Courses," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 103-6.

In a study of engineering students it was found that "industriousness in any one of

the four subjects—English, chemistry, mathematics, and physics—does not necessarily imply industriousness in any of the remaining three."

593. KURTZ, JOHN J., and SWENSON, ESTHER J. "Factors Related to Over-Achievement and Under-Achievement in School," *School Review*, LIX (November, 1951), 472-80.

A research which shed light on the problems of guidance with reference to quality of work. Contrasting factors were found in home conditions, peer relations, physical and mental well-being, academic inclination, aspirations, and prospects for the future.

594. LAWSON, DOUGLAS E. "Development of Case-Study Approaches," *Educational Forum*, XVI (March, 1952), 311-17.

By means of effective illustrations, the author clarifies and justifies modern methods of child study, with the co-ordinated use of specialists.

595. ROTHNEY, JOHN W. M., and HEIMANN, ROBERT A. Review of *Client-centered Therapy* by Carl Rogers, *Occupations*, XXX (May, 1952), 612-14, 616.

A review which challenges some of the claims for client-centered therapy, partly on the basis of theory and partly in criticism of the evidence that has been offered.

596. STOUFFER, GEORGE A. W., JR. "Behavior Problems of Children as Viewed by Teachers and Mental Hygienists," *Mental Hygiene*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 271-85.

A study of present attitudes as compared with those reported by E. K. Wickman in his celebrated study, *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes* (Commonwealth Fund, 1928), to ascertain what changes may have occurred in twenty-five years. This research shows teachers' attitudes toward children's behavior to have changed somewhat, contrasting less sharply with the attitudes of the mental hygienists.

The author's interpretations appropriately take account of the differences in professional interests and social pressures as affecting the outlooks of the two groups.

597. TOPP, ROBERT F. "Preadolescent Behavior Patterns Suggestive of Emotional Malfunctioning," *Elementary School Journal*, LII (February, 1952), 340-43.

Brief descriptions of forty "behaviors to watch for" which were agreed upon by a jury of child psychologists and psychiatrists as evidence of emotional maladjustment when several of them are observable in a child.

598. WILLEY, ROY DEVERL. *Guidance in Elementary Education*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. xiv+826.

A work which emphasizes techniques for the study of individual children, the accomplishment of social and emotional adjustment, and the creation of environmental conditions which contribute to wholesome growth. Wide acquaintance with the literature which illuminates these functions is evident in the discourse and in the extensive chapter bibliographies.

DISTRIBUTION AND ADJUSTMENT

599. *After Teen-Agers Quit School*. Bulletin No. 150, Bureau of Labor Standards, United States Department of Labor. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1952. Pp. vi+30.

Descriptions of thoughtful practices in seven cities to help "would-be-workers." They picture the co-ordination of community agencies for aiding young people leaving school in making the transition to work life.

600. ANDREWS, E. BRENNETA. "A Basic Testing Program in Guidance," *Pittsburgh Schools*, XXVI (January-February, 1952), 72-82.

Describes the employment of the Differential Aptitude Tests, the Kuder Preference Record, and the Bell Adjustment Inventory with pupils in Grade X B. A

number of the predictive relationships that have been ascertained are shown, and the counseling procedure is described.

601. BENNETT, GEORGE K.; SEASHORE, HAROLD B.; and WESMAN, ALEXANDER G. *Counseling from Profiles: A Casebook for the Differential Aptitude Tests*. New York: Psychological Corporation, 1951. Pp. 96.

Brief case studies of pupils in Grades VIII-XII, illustrating practical employment of test profiles in conjunction with other data and information.

602. BLAESSER, WILLARD W., and HOPKINS, EVERETT H. *Counseling College Students during the Defense Period*. Washington: Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, 1952. Pp. vi+24.

A bulletin designed to help with the problems of distributive and adjustive guidance peculiar to the defense period.

603. FREDERIKSEN, NORMAN, and SCHRAEDER, W. B. *Adjustment to College*. Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, 1951. Pp. xviii+504.

A report of research carried on in sixteen colleges and universities to compare veterans and nonveterans. Light is shed on many factors bearing on college success.

604. FROELICH, CLIFFORD P., and DARLEY, JOHN G. *Studying Students: Guidance Methods of Individual Analysis*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. xviii+412.

Presents the study of the individual by observation, interview, the autobiography, tests and measurements, and sociometric methods. Introductory chapters explain elementary statistical methods.

605. GLUCK, SAMUEL, and OTHERS. "A Proposed Code of Ethics for Counselors," *Occupations*, XXX (April, 1952), 484-90.

From the proposed or adopted codes of the professions of law, medicine, psychology, and social work, these authors have se-

lected items which appeared to them to be applicable to counselors, revising the items as it seemed necessary.

606. HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J. "A Community Youth Development Plan," *School Review*, LIX (November, 1951), 457-66.

Suggests a thoughtful plan for the coordination of youth agencies in the work of analyzing children—especially to locate at an early date the gifted and the maladjusted children—and the administration of effective methods of conservation.

607. JAGER, HARRY A., and ARMSBY, HENRY H. "Engineering and the High School as a Source of Supply," *School Life*, XXXIV (February, 1952), 67-68, 78-79.

Reports many facts pertinent to the current and anticipated shortage of engineers and enumerates suggestions of what can be done about it.

608. JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. "Toward Better Relationships between Junior Colleges and High Schools," *School Review*, LX (February, 1952), 77-83.

Describes, with examples, the practical steps being taken in California to articulate the work of high schools and junior colleges.

609. LANGSTON, DANIEL W. "Recommendations, Minimum Standards for County-Level Guidance Services," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVI (October, 1951), 366-73.

This article calls attention to the possibilities of the office of the county superintendent in the performance of guidance.

610. LEONARD, W. N. "Psychological Tests and the Educational System," *School and Society*, LXXV (April 12, 1952), 225-29.

Reviews findings of recent studies which reveal factors influential in the selection of students for college and the success of students in college.

611. MILLER, LEONARD M. *Counseling High-School Students during the Defense Period*. Washington: Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, 1952. Pp. vi+34.

An excellent statement of the problems which the defense period has brought to youth and to the secondary school, with practical suggestions on meeting the problems.

612. MORRIS, GLYN A. *Practical Guidance Methods for Principals and Teachers*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. xiv+266.

Employing a dramatized style, the author portrays a high-school principal and faculty at work in identifying and solving typical guidance problems.

613. NOVAK, BENJAMIN J. "Don't Sell the Homeroom Short," *Nation's Schools*, XLVIII (October, 1951), 49-51.

A restatement of home-room objectives and methods, together with reasons for its frequent failure to be of service.

614. ROTHNEY, JOHN W. M. "Interpreting Test Scores to Counselees," *Occupations*, XXX (February, 1952), 320-22.

Individual interpretation of test scores to several hundred high-school pupils resulted in few unfavorable reactions.

615. ROTHNEY, JOHN W. M., and MOOREN, ROBERT L. "Sampling Problems in Follow-up Research," *Occupations*, XXX (May, 1952), 573-78.

A research showing clearly that "incomplete samples of populations in follow-up studies provide biased data" and indicating what the factors of bias are in a typical follow-up study of high-school graduates.

616. *The School Counselor: His Work and Training*. Prepared by DONALD E. KITCH and WILLIAM H. MCCREARY. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XX, No. 7.

Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1951. Pp. x+44.

Summarizes general functions and specific activities of counselors. Presents principal findings of status studies of counselors in elementary and secondary schools in California.

617. SUPER, DONALD E. "The Criteria of Vocational Success," *Occupations*, XXX (October, 1951), 5-9.

Reviews the employment of such criteria as output, advancement, stability, and efficiency ratings, and shows their inadequacy. In a succeeding article ("Vocational Adjustment: Implementing a Self-concept," *Occupations*, XXX [November, 1951], 88-92), Super develops the point of view that vocational success is achieved

in the degree to which the individual's self-concept is clarified and implemented by his work.

618. WOLFLE, DAEL L. "America's Intellectual Resources," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 125-35.

Submits data from various surveys showing the country's intellectual resources and the inadequate development and utilization of them.

619. ZERFOSS, KARL P. *Readings in Counseling*. New York: Association Press, 1952. Pp. viii+640.

Short selections from many well-known books and from a few magazine articles.



QUESTIONS FOR YOU, THE READER

THE EDITORIAL COMMITTEE of the *School Review* would like to hear from the readers about continuing the series of "Selected References" which has appeared regularly in the magazine for two decades. The results from similar questions directed to subscribers some years ago were very useful to us. To guide our planning for the next year, would you please send us a letter or a post card, giving us your answers to the following questions:

1. Do you prefer that the lists of "Selected References" be retained?
2. Do you prefer that the lists of "Selected References" be dropped and the space be given to articles?

If you have suggestions for other types of materials that you would like to see published, please include those in your letter. Please also indicate the type of position that you hold, such as teacher, superintendent, college or university professor, etc.

THE EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

M. H. WILLING, JOHN GUY FOWLKES, EDWARD B. KRUG, RUSSELL T. GREGG, and CLIFFORD S. LIDDLE, *Schools and Our Democratic Society*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1951. Pp. xii+430. \$3.50.

Education in the American tradition has always been vested with a public interest. In early New England this view found expression in the statement that "the good education of children is of singular behoof and benefit to any commonwealth." It is not too much to say that our system of public education was primarily the product of the emergence of the democratic state as a system of political organization. More recently, as we have moved away from a simple type of community life into a more complex social pattern, it has become all the more important that education be regarded as a social instrument.

In current educational theory, great emphasis is put on helping the individual attain physical, emotional, and intellectual maturity and excellence; great stress is placed, too, on the development of individual competence in the world of primary, face-to-face social relationships of the home, school, and community. This is as it should be. But our emphasis on the individual in his world of primary, face-to-face relationships has caused us to neglect seriously the relation of the school and of the individual to the ordered pattern of social institutions at the societal level. The result is that the fruits of education are too much private and personal and too little public and social.

For these and for other reasons, the book by Willing, Fowlkes, and others on the relation of school and society is highly impor-

tant. It had its inception in a course, "The School and Society," given for a number of years by members of the faculty of the School of Education of the University of Wisconsin. It represents the mature thinking of those who participated in giving the course, as well as of those who are the present authors. The purpose the authors had in mind in writing the volume is admirably stated:

What a book may do to help teachers to identify and judge the social controls of the school, to understand the meaning of the community school, to work out the educational implications of democracy, to bring social problems within the range of the curriculum, and to acquire respect for the changing work and status of the teacher, that we have tried to make this book do. . . . We have not tried to push the child, the subject, or the learning process out of the picture. We have insisted, however, that the proper meaning of education today is not to be grasped without looking carefully into what citizens and their law-makers want of the schools; what the country, town, and city need from their schools; what significances are to be attached to the American Way of Life; and what current public problems have claims upon attention and activity of the schools [p. xi].

Following an introduction devoted to suggestions for teaching and learning activities, the first chapter gives a preview of the social role of the school. The two following chapters deal with the nature, form, and extent of the controls, official and unofficial, of public education. Then two chapters explore four major demands that democracy makes on the school: commitment to individuality and self-government, and concern for equality and critical intelligence.

Of the additional chapters, one is devoted to the school's relation to social problems; two, to the curriculum in the classroom and beyond, and six, to the teacher. The chapters on the teacher push home the urgency of the social point of view in the work of the teacher.

This volume was designed as a textbook for both the pre-service and in-service education of teachers. It is carefully planned, mature in thought, well written, teachable. It will serve its purpose admirably.

NEWTON EDWARDS

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JEAN D. GRAMBS and WILLIAM J. IVERSON,
Modern Methods in Secondary Education.
New York: William Sloan Associates,
1952. Pp. xiv+562. \$4.75.

It is always refreshing to come across a volume in educational literature which seeks to integrate theory and practice. Grambs and Iverson, on the faculty of Stanford University, have produced an excellent textbook, *Modern Methods in Secondary Education*. Designed for use in a methods course for prospective secondary-school teachers, it will doubtless prove valuable to the inexperienced teacher in service. In simple, straightforward style, free from the jargon which clutters so much of educational literature, the authors emphasize knowledge on "how to do it."

The volume is divided into six sections. Section I, "Planning for Learning," sets forth the over-all job of the high school today. In this section consideration is given to the nature of the pupil with whom the teacher will have to deal. It discusses the differences which are found among secondary-school students and generalizes on the implications of these differences for the teacher. The evolution of the high-school curriculum is described in this section, and the reader is acquainted with some of the changes which are urgently needed now in

education. In order to be realistic, however, the authors do not create the illusion that the new teacher can effect these changes without resistance. Rather, attention is given to the major factors that oppose curriculum change.

In Section II, "Materials and Activities for Learning," a discussion is presented on what the high school's evolution and present status mean for everyday teaching. This section treats the use of audio-visual aids, use of textbooks, drill and review, using community resources, and other topics. Of course, discussions of these materials and activities are found in other methods textbooks, but the reviewer feels that the effective manner in which these two authors make their presentation gives their book an appeal not possessed by others. Especially worthy of mention is the excellent chapter on community resources, in which definite, workable suggestions are given on how these can provide materials of cogent value for the discerning teacher. Further, this section goes into the teacher's use of such techniques as sociodrama and group techniques.

Section III, "Special Problems in Learning," plunges into some of the real problems of teaching and learning: slow and fast learners, teaching of communication skills, and discipline. The chapters of this section are extremely valuable because anecdotes, excerpts from case studies, and transcripts of teaching situations are abundantly given. The problem of discipline is treated in two very full chapters, and a sense of the actual is imparted through the use of many examples of how teachers reacted in situations involving discipline.

Since evaluation inevitably accompanies good teaching, three chapters of Section IV are devoted to this issue. The mechanics of how to construct a test are first outlined, with examples of good test items. Next, consideration is given to grading and reporting student progress. Finally, the theories of evaluation are presented. This treatment is different from that found in most textbooks, which begin with the theory

of evaluation and proceed to the mechanics of test construction.

The value of guidance has been recognized in the modern high school. Guidance ought to be thought of as teaching, and teaching ought to be conceived of as good guidance. Section V on "Guidance and Learning" provides two significant discussions on the techniques of individual counseling and of group guidance. Emphasis is given to sociometric procedures as part of the group guidance program. True to the book's emphasis on the practical, the section devotes attention to the details of administering a sociometric test. Stress is also placed on the responsibility of the teacher for establishing cordial relations with the home as a valuable aid to guidance of his students.

The professional and social life of the teacher in the community and the problems of the teacher as a person are considered in the last section of the book under the heading, "On the Job." Worthy of commendation is the discussion on psychological barriers between teacher and students. The fact that the teacher cannot afford to be prejudiced is emphasized, and a questionnaire is provided by which one can assess his own feelings as regards racial and religious minorities. Finally, practical advice is given on how to secure a teaching position, with particular attention to what is ethical in applying for positions and in accepting an assignment.

In addition to the emphasis on the practical, "how-to-do-it" aspects of teaching and the simple direct style in which it is written, the volume under review is valuable because (1) a summary is provided at the end of each chapter; (2) selected and annotated references of recent date are given at the end of each chapter; (3) the Appendix contains suggested learning activities which are correlated with each of the twenty-two chapters.

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MAITLAND P. SIMMONS, *The Young Scientist: Activities for Junior High School Students*. New York: Exposition Press, 1951. Pp. viii+164. \$3.00.

During recent years attention has been focused upon the role of experiencing in the learning process. We have become increasingly aware of the fact that the kind of learning which takes place is the result of the *kind* of experience we have. Traditionally, science and other subjects in the curriculum have relied largely upon the experience involved in reading a textbook and repeating what has been read to the teacher. The failure to readjust to the newer concept of the nature of learning has in some measure been due to the fact that teachers either do not know what kinds of experiences are fruitful in bringing about learning or that they do not know how to provide meaningful experiences in specific areas of science.

The Young Scientist has been written to provide a series of science experiences to supplement the science textbook. The author presents thirteen units which include those commonly found in junior high school science textbooks. Each unit begins with an "Introduction" which raises questions the pupils are to answer before carrying out the activities. These questions are designed to test the pupils' previous knowledge and provide motivation to carry out the experiments. Following the "Introduction" are "Directions for Study," consisting of carefully worded directions for performing experiments and questions concerning the results obtained. The next section, "Interpretations," consists of questions which ask for explanations of common events using the generalization derived from the experiment. A section entitled "To the Young Scientist" gives suggestions to the pupil on how to use the book most effectively.

The book is an excellent contribution to the field of science education. It is of particular value to the elementary-school or junior high school teacher who is not adequately prepared in science. It may be used by the teacher to suggest a series of interesting ex-

periments which can be performed with a minimum of skill and apparatus. Placed in the hands of the pupils, the book should provide an excellent means of motivation and should give the pupil practice in formulating

his own generalizations and applying these generalizations in the solution of everyday problems.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

The American Secondary School. Edited by PAUL B. JACOBSON. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Pp. viii+458. \$4.75.

ARMY, CLARA BROWN. *The Effectiveness of the High-School Program in Home Economics: A Report of a Five-Year Study of Twenty Minnesota Schools.* Minneapolis 14: University of Minnesota Press, 1952. Pp. xviii+320. \$4.75.

BRAMMELL, P. ROY. *Your Schools and Mine.* New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. viii+438. \$4.50.

CLAPP, ELSIE RIPLEY. *The Use of Resources in Education.* A publication of the John Dewey Society. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. xii+174. \$4.00.

COUNTS, GEORGE S. *Education and American Civilization.* A Publication of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. xiv+492. \$3.75.

DETJEN, ERVIN WINFRED, and DETJEN, MARY FORD. *Elementary School Guidance.* New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xii+266. \$3.75.

The English Language Arts. Prepared by the Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952. Pp. xxiv+502. \$3.75.

HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J.; DEHAAN, ROBERT F.; DIETERICH, WILLIAM J.; HACKMACK, HENRY; JOHNSON, LAVONA; and KING, ROBERT D. *A Community Youth*

Development Program. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 75. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1952. Pp. viii+60. \$1.50.

JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. *General Education in Action.* A Report of the California Study of General Education in the Junior College. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1952. Pp. xxvi+410. \$4.00.

JOHNSTON, EDGAR G., and FAUNCE, ROLAND C. *Student Activities in Secondary Schools: Enrichment of the Educational Program.* New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. x+370. \$4.50.

KEPLER, HAZEL. *The Child and His Play: A Planning Guide for Parents and Teachers.* New York 10: Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1952. Pp. x+310. \$3.75.

KNIGHT, EDGAR W. *Fifty Years of American Education: A Historical Review and Critical Appraisal.* New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. viii+484. \$4.75.

KUHLEN, RAYMOND G. *The Psychology of Adolescent Development.* New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. xviii+676. \$5.00.

MALM, MARGUERITE, and JAMISON, OLIS G. *Adolescence.* New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. viii+512. \$5.00.

MELVIN, A. GORDON. *General Methods of Teaching.* New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. viii+252. \$3.75.

MILLER, VAN, and SPALDING, WILLARD B. *The Public Administration of American Schools.* Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Co., 1952. Pp. xvi+606. \$4.60.

MURSELL, JAMES L. *Psychology for Modern*

ENGL

- Education*. New York 3: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. x+610. \$3.90.
- NATIONAL MANPOWER COUNCIL. *Student Deferment and National Manpower Policy*. A Statement of Policy by the Council with Facts and Issues Prepared by the Research Staff. New York 27: Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. x+102. \$2.00.
- REDL, FRITZ, and WINEMAN, DAVID. *Controls from Within: Techniques for the Treatment of the Aggressive Child*. Glen- coe, Illinois: Free Press, 1952. Pp. 332. \$4.50.
- SAMFORD, CLARENCE D., and COTTLE, EUGENE. *Social Studies in the Secondary School*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. x+376. \$4.25.
- SQUIRE, RUSSEL N. *Introduction to Music Education*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. x+186. \$3.25.
- BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS
- AIKEN, DAYMOND J., and HENDERSON, KENNETH B. *Algebra: Its Big Ideas and Basic Skills*, Book II. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xii+398. \$2.72.
- BEARD, CHARLES A.; ROBINSON, JAMES HARVEY; and SMITH, DONNAL V. *History of Civilization: Our Own Age*. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1952 (revised). Pp. xiv+878 +xlv. \$4.20.
- BROOKS, WILLIAM O., and TRACY, GEORGE R. *Modern Physical Science*. New York 17: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xii+586. \$3.80.
- CANHAM, DON. *Field Techniques Illustrated*. New York 16: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1952. Pp. 96. \$1.50.
- CANHAM, DON. *Track Techniques Illustrated*. New York 16: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1952. Pp. 96. \$1.50.
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